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# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## Editor's Page

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### THE SOCIAL-PROCESS APPROACH

MANY plans for curriculum organization and revision have been advanced in the past twenty years. Organization around problems, organization by units, and organization in generalizations, have all had proponents, united in little save their condemnation of a chronological—or any “logical” rather than “psychological”—treatment. We have had efforts to determine objectively what is important and practical. We have had elaborate efforts to develop, still objectively, the major generalizations to be taught. These objective procedures have not been notably successful. Even if they had been, the uncomfortable fact that what is important changes constantly would still have had to be faced. Whether we adopt a topical, unit, problem, generalization, or a chronological plan of organization one question persists: what topics or units or problems or generalizations or facts should we teach?

Some curriculum specialists have developed master generalizations. These stand in great need of validation. Moreover they are far too general to be satisfactory. Some college and university professors in their textbooks have advanced interpretations. These authorities fail to agree, however, and in any case educators suspect them of being too much concerned with “subject matter,” too little with needs of pupils and,

perhaps, of society. Many teachers, supervisors, and administrators have tried their hand—and confusion has usually been worse confounded.

Professor Leon C. Marshall, economist, administrator, educator, author, and government official, long associated with the University of Chicago, now professor of political economy at the American University and professor of education at The Johns Hopkins University, has for more than twenty years been trying to answer the question. Part of his answer appeared in a text book for junior high schools—*The Story of Human Progress*—published in 1925. That attempted “to give the pupil a coherent view of the main forces or factors involved in living together in society,” to give him “a simple, consistent framework to which he may attach his later thinking and experience as a whole rather than as a series of scattered fragments. . . .” The effort was further continued in *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies: a Social-Process Approach*, recently published as part of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. Has he found an answer to our most serious curriculum problem?

### ARE THERE REALLY ANY FENCES?

SECONDARY-SCHOOL teachers and administrators sometimes think of secondary education as something distinct,

complete in itself. That there is an elementary school they are quite aware, but often its program and problems are only vague impressions—except, of course, for the conviction that new classes in high school always seem inadequately prepared! We believe that Miss Kelty's informed and competent analysis of elementary-school problems, and of the various efforts to make the curriculum accord with present-day educational psychology and philosophy, will be as illuminating to high-school faculties as it is helpful to elementary-school principals and teachers. That the study of society is a continuous process in school as out is accepted in theory; in practice the isolation of elementary, secondary, and college programs is all too common.

**C**AN secondary schools provide a survey of contemporary civilization, or provide in the final year a study of contemporary problems? Many schools make the effort to do so. Meanwhile an increasing number of colleges are engaged in a similar attempt. At Chicago, President Hutchins suggests that the last two years of high school be combined with the first two years of college, and that the social-science courses now organized for freshmen and sophomores be transferred to the present eleventh and twelfth grades. In any case the college surveys of civilization and systematic integration of the social sciences have significance for secondary-school teachers because of their plans of organization, their content, and the degree to which they do or do not duplicate high-school offerings. If presently the college courses travel down to the secondary schools it will not be the first time such a shift has occurred. Professor Taylor's account of the Columbia College courses in Contemporary Civilization, now in their eighteenth year, will be of interest to others than college instructors. Teachers of senior-year courses in modern problems may well find the substantial outlines and the practical references that they often need in the successive editions of the syllabi of these courses.

**G**EOPGRAPHY is not, for most pupils, a senior high-school study, nor is it always a separate subject in the junior high school. Yet it can not be dissociated either from history, at any level, or from economics, nor can it be omitted from the junior high-school social studies. The shift in recent years from emphasis on physical and place geography to "human geography" and geographical influences is significant to all who are concerned with the social studies. Dr Hartshorne's critical evaluation of curriculum trends in geography is not the narrow concern of geographers. If geographers are dubious about easy explanations of events in terms of geographical influence perhaps teachers of history had best cease teaching that the clear eyes and minds of the ancient Athenians were due to the clarity of the atmosphere of Hellas!

#### THE C. E. E. B. HISTORY REPORT

**L**AST month we invited comment on the report of the College Entrance Examination Board Commission on History. From the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association comes the following:

**S**IR:—After reading and rereading the Final Report and Recommendations of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board, this reader is filled with sympathy and pity—sympathy with their task of trying to make constructive suggestions to a group of teachers who want to go on doing their jobs in the same old way; pity that they try to carry water on both shoulders and so have achieved what seems to be neither "flesh, nor fowl, nor good red herring." Their equivocal position has led them in their report into several difficult positions. For example: "The Commission still maintains that the departmentalization of the social studies had better be deferred until after the student has entered college." Yet at the beginning of that very paragraph is the statement that "the Commission further main-

tains that the historical approach is the natural and easy method of approach to the so-called social studies." The Commission insists on historical approach, and yet it strongly advocates that the materials considered be "interpreted to the student in terms of his own experience." The Report makes a strong plea for the use of immediacy as the means of motivation, saying that "if we think of men remote in time, and place, wrestling with the same problems which face us today, we become in some sense fellow-workers in the same task," and yet, if the strictly historical approach is maintained, the "problems which face us today" cannot be considered until they are reached in their historical context. But if they are referred to casually and incidentally, it must be in that superficial way which the Commission rightly deplores.

The Commission has considered and rejected the possibility of using the study of contemporary problems as the basis for organization, bringing in the history of each problem in order that its proper perspective and importance may be developed. They admit the validity of this approach but believe that it has been over-emphasized. They say that "one great objection to it lies in the fact that it tends to measure the significance of facts past in terms of their significance in times present." To this reader, that seems an asset, not an objection; unless selection of historical content is made on the basis of "significance in times present," then the secondary school must take the responsibility of teaching all the historical factual background which the individual will ever need, an assumption which they pointedly repudiate at another place. The point which they overlook seems to be that the problems-approach offers a method by which the individual may solve new and unforeseen problems no matter when they arise: a method which emphasizes the real usefulness of history, which makes it functional not decorative, and by which the habit can be formed of seeking historical perspective in the solu-

tion of any problem of human relations. Another objection that they find to the problems-approach is "that the approach to the past from the present lends itself too easily to some form or other of indoctrination." This objection does not seem to be peculiar to any method of development. The Marxian collectivist can substantiate his particular point of view in a chronological organization as well as in a problems course. The laissez faire individualist can develop his propaganda through chronology as well as through other forms of organization.

A further advantage of the problems-approach, in the opinion of the writer, is that it lends itself far more readily to the development of social attitudes and intellectual skills, objectives deemed valid by the Commission, than does the chronological organization, which, of necessity, is content-centered.

Mr Kepner quite shrewdly raised the question "What are C. E. E. B. examinations for?" Are they to test the knowledge and memorizing power of the high-school graduates or are they to indicate to the colleges those students who have desirable social attitudes, who know how to handle social-studies materials, and who have trained intellectual powers necessary for successful work in college? If these latter specific objectives are more important than the mastery of content, whether that content be politico-military or social-process in its emphasis, then why could not the college entrance examinations test directly for these intellectual skills and habits? Enough tests of these types are already available to indicate their possibilities and to point out that the others necessary can be developed.

Thus would be obviated the necessity of dictating courses of study for four years, in which the medieval period of history is shifted from its alliance to the modern period and thrown back with the ancient area, and the concession timidly made that there might possibly be a course

in contemporary civilization. The great variety of social-studies courses and organizations, which the Commission found in its survey and seems to deplore, would be an asset rather than a liability. If there is one thing demonstrable in American school education today, it is its unwillingness to be strait-jacketed into the narrow bounds of a single course of study predetermined by experts. This tendency is so promising for significant values of education in general that it is a great pity that this Commission thought it necessary to dictate the social-studies content of each of the four years of the secondary school.

S. P. McCUTCHEON

Ohio State University

From New York University comes the following letter written by the secretary of the Committee on History and Citizenship in Schools, which made recommendations for both elementary and secondary schools in 1920.

**S**IR:—It is indeed an exhibition of real courage when a single member of a commission made up of well known scholars and educators registers a dissenting opinion to that held by twelve out of its thirteen members. When that dissenting opinion is characterized by such a penetrating analysis of the real issues involved, set forth in clear-cut fashion, it deserves the serious attention of all those interested in the future of history teaching. The work of this commission, like so many others in the past, seems to illustrate the difficulties of setting forth adequately in realistic terms either the actual situation investigated or the practical ways and means of meeting it. Too often the result is like a composite photograph. Assuming to reflect the points of view of a group made up of more or less diverse elements, while it possesses a certain interest, after the fashion of any composite result, it lacks reality and offers comparatively little that can be put into practice.

It would be unfair, however, to dismiss the majority report in this case with the implication that little has been accomplished. This three-year effort is helpful in building a better picture of certain aspects of the teaching situation; it also reveals some of the thinking of serious students of the situation (perhaps somewhat "wishful" in character as Mr Kepner has indicated). The advocacy of a comprehensive examination in history (whatever may be the variety of history contemplated), even though based partly upon a program enunciated more than twenty years ago, partly upon a program of curriculum making still largely on paper and unvalidated, is a decided step forward.

The general tone of the report impresses the writer as rather a curious combination of reactionary and Utopian elements. It would seem that a body, made up as was this one of students of the past, might have relied more upon actual experience in providing teachers throughout the country with a satisfactory blue print for the teaching of history. Not more programs seem to be needed, but rather a critical evaluation, on a classroom basis, of those already in operation and of actual teaching in its relation to the subject matter and organization of history. The classroom, with its problem of the actual handling of history for young adolescents, should be the point of departure. There is little in this report to guide the teacher, and there is no study of the fundamental question of the relation of an examination system to the curriculum. Have examination systems raised the standards of achievement in this field? Can they? If so, how? The Commission practically admits its helplessness before such queries by shifting over to definition and curriculum making. Even though there is a general recognition of the pertinence of these to the situation studied, the Commission seem to have fallen short in neglecting what was for them the true point of departure, viz., the examination.

Already there is plenty of literature de-

fining his field for the young teacher although it must be admitted that he has been, and still continues to be, so busy acquiring subject matter that he has never taken the time to survey the domain in which he is to labor. While such a report offers the teacher a number of alternatives for classroom purposes, history's true friends will not neglect as much as has this group that alternative so effectively presented by Henry Johnson at the close of chapter i of his classic *Teaching of History*—the treatment of development as a dynamic force in making the world of today and yesterday intelligible, with the aid of the historical method. The emphasis upon these closely intertwined aspects of history as they center about the actualities of the past will go far toward assuring history the place it deserves in any sound scheme of instruction. Such a conception provides a basis for grading subject matter whereby each step taken may be clearly perceived as a step forward in the subject. Finally, in attaching such emphasis to the "social-process approach" as is indicated by the space devoted to its analysis in Appendix A, the Commission tends to attach an importance hardly warranted by its authors

and sponsors who see therein but "another" approach, not designed to supplant, but to supplement, those hitherto in vogue among curriculum makers. It is the opinion of the writer, borne out by actual classroom experience in the secondary school for a period of a quarter of a century, that such an approach, suggestive though it is, is more suitable at the junior-college or college level, or, if used at all below those grades, is only applicable in its more elementary phases. If history is to be so completely merged or submerged in the welter of a social-studies chaos, then possibly this method may help to rescue it from utter oblivion and may thereby enable history to contribute a little something out of its rich nature to instruction in this area. But in my judgment the solution does not lie in this direction.

The good teaching which the Commission seeks to realize calls for greater attention to the five points made in the minority report than the Commission has accorded them.

Very truly yours,  
DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

School of Education  
New York University

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# Patterns Underlying the Details of Human Living

LEON C. MARSHALL

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If the social studies mean anything these days, they mean a body of material intended to enable us to understand our social, or group, living—our past group living, our present group living, and, as much as may be, our future group living. Furthermore, most of us subscribe to the idea that we should reach beyond mere understanding; we should cast our thinking out in the direction of conscious, deliberate control. In other words, we think of our social studies as leading up to the acquisition of some sense of social engineering—some appreciation of what is required if we would live together well today, and what is required if we would live together better in days to come.

It is not surprising that with respect to the issues involved in better living this is a period of confusion and uncertainty in the social studies. Nor is it disheartening. There are circumstances in which serenity and certainty spell bigotry and lack of progress, just as there are circumstances in

which confusion and uncertainty spell open mindedness and the forward look. In the case of the social studies, the confusion of today is to no small extent chargeable to the wealth of detail accumulated in the various specialized disciplines—a detail so vast that no single mind can find the time to come into contact with all of it, to say nothing of acquiring background to glean its full richness of meaning. This situation may have its temporarily discouraging features, but at the least it is not the serenity of death. As for uncertainty in analysis, it is largely the uncertainty of the open and inquiring mind—and this is much to be preferred to the sureness of bigotry. Uncertainty in analysis, and consequently in social engineering, may be expected to attend the enormous changes that have occurred in our physical ways of living, our philosophical and religious outlooks, our political and economic structures in the last century and even in the last generation. Whitehead has well pointed out that we are the first generation in all human history in which such changes are occurring so rapidly that the accumulated standards or mores of our groups do not suffice for fairly adequate guidance. Naturally, there is uncertainty—the uncertainty, we hope, that presages understanding.

Though reference has been made to the social-process approach in the discussion of the Report on History to the College Entrance Examination Board, Dr Marshall's article in this issue is simply an exposition of some part of those views, already described in the Editor's Page, rather than, in any sense, a contribution to the debate of the Report.

In such a situation, issues naturally come to the front with respect to appropriate procedures in presenting the social studies to the oncoming generation. One such issue is this: Can we find, underlying the seeming

confusion of the mountainous specialized detail, some simple but far-reaching patterns that will facilitate putting this detail (or at least the portions of it that are selected for instructional purposes) into perspective and order? If we can, meaning will be enriched and learning will be facilitated. Another issue: If such patterns can be located, will they be found to have such permanence, such enduring qualities, that even the spectacular changes of the last century fall into perspective as being merely current and temporary manifestations of basic activities which are as ancient as the race? If so, a vantage point of relative calm has been found from which to view in perspective the controversial storms of changing living. Still another issue: If there are such far-reaching and enduring patterns underlying the on-going and ever-changing activities of man's larger groups (his "tribes," "nations," or "societies"), are these patterns also manifested in his small, personal, face-to-face groups? If they are, an educational advantage of no mean significance exists; for in that event these basic matters of group living fall within the experiential ken of even young pupils. A final question: If all the foregoing issues are to be answered in the affirmative, does this imply that solutions will become available ready made to all the current practical problems of social living? Of course not—no more than the awareness of underlying patterns in the vast detail of chemical facts enables the chemist to wave a wand and produce synthetic rubber. But this much is true: Awareness of underlying patterns does give awareness of the paths in which the next steps, and the next steps, and the next steps may be taken in an engineering quest. And that is all that science ever does for engineering.

And what of social engineering? By what steps, as a matter of descriptive fact, is human living improved? What is the "operative cause" of our living better—or worse, for that matter—than did a neolithic savage? Is this "cause" to be found in some

significant change in man's biological base by virtue of which his greater biological powers enabled him to live better? The biologists and anthropologists tell us that this did not happen. They tell us that the inherited biological powers of man today do not differ essentially from those of man of ten thousand years ago. Is the "cause" to be found in Mother Nature's becoming more beneficent so that the natural physical environment "of itself" allowed man to live better? The question answers itself. We may, indeed, cut short all such questioning by saying that we know of but one operative cause of man's different—and better—living. *His biological base (and his alone of all life) is such as to make possible through group living the accumulation of those acquired or learned ways that we call culture.* Better living depends upon—is—better culture applied to the significant processes of living. Since this is true, if we can secure a working understanding of those biological features which made culture possible, if we can secure a working understanding of how group living brings about the emergence and accumulation of culture, and if we can secure a working understanding of the basic matters which persist in group living and to which culture is applied, then we have vantage points from which to start our engineering quest, a quest that, because of man's biological characteristics, must go on as long as man is the man we know.

In all this there is, of course, nothing new. Its repetition is defensible only if repetition serves to bring again to the forefront of our consciousness the basic matters that tend to be somewhat obscured by the welter of detail in our specialized social sciences of today. The essential aim of these sciences is an integrated, balanced understanding of group, or social, living. That, too, is the essential aim of the curriculum of social studies in our schools; for, without understanding, control of culture which will secure better living is not to be expected.

In another connection<sup>1</sup> there has been set forth a classification of "basic processes," or "essential features," or "patterns," or other equivalent term, which has persisted in all human groups of all times and places. Every classification, of course, is made in terms of the purposes to be served. This particular classification, it is suggested, is in the present status of our literature operatively useful for curriculum purposes. It is not suggested that it is designed to serve all other conceivable purposes. Stated as briefly as possible it runs thus (with, of course, each process interacting upon all others):

A. The Process of Man's Adjustment with the External Physical World.

1. The Process of Learning to Control Nature's Powers and Forces.

2. The Process of Organizing to Manipulate this Control—the Economic Order.

3. The Process of Man's Distribution over the Physical and Cultural Areas of the Earth.

B. The Process of Human Biological Continuance and Conservation.

C. The Process of Guiding Human Motivation and Aspiration.

1. The Process of Establishing Values or Standards.

2. The Process of Securing Requisite Adherence to Values or Standards.

D. The Process of Developing and Operating the Agencies of Social Organization (the economic order could of course be here treated).

1. The Process of Formation and Maintenance of Groups.

2. The Process of Governance of Groups.

E. The Process of Securing and Directing Cultural Continuance and Cultural Change.

F. The Process of Personality Molding.

<sup>1</sup>L. C. Marshall and R. M. Goetz, *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies—A Social-Process Approach*. Part XIII, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Scribner, 1936.

HERE also there is nothing new, except perhaps in matters of emphasis and integration. For decades there have been materials of instruction and well tried techniques of presentation in many, many items that fall into place in such a classification. That, for example, is true of the work on food, clothing, shelter, immigration, economics, health, character education, government—to mention only a few topics that come first to mind. It is true, furthermore, of reliance upon instruction based upon the pupil's experiences and pointed toward generalizations into which details may be fitted in perspective. The difference, in those cases which display a difference, between current practice and the approach here suggested is that *this approach emphasizes the need of balanced, integrated understanding of ALL major patterns of group living; and indicates that ALL these patterns are within the experiential ken of every child*. It holds, furthermore, that it is feasible to reap the benefits of this situation through improvement rather than through spectacular disruption of current practices. Curriculum making and instruction in the social studies have long been busy in putting down foundations—foundations that have too often been partial and scattered. It is suggested that the time has arrived for putting down *all* the known foundations and then erecting an integrated, comprehensive structure. Viewed from one angle, this is a small suggestion; viewed from another, it is crucial. A final increment, however small, may be crucial. The difference between fluid water and solid ice may be trifling in temperature but vast in practical consequences.

If the utilization of an integrated process approach to curriculum making and instruction in the social studies may conceivably have significant consequences, it is highly appropriate that the idea be searchingly examined and, to the extent that it contemplates untried matters, severely tested. As it happens, the really untried

matters are few; perhaps there are none, if account be taken of the fact that different names often conceal identity of content. Certainly, there is nothing new and untried in unit presentation, in integration, in utilization of experiential background, in building generalizations into which detailed facts are fitted in perspective. Equally certainly, there is nothing in the suggested classification of basic processes (or underlying patterns) which does not fall well within the judgment of competent workers in the field. Here the essential issue is whether this classification is a workable framework within which to organize the materials and to accomplish the objectives now current or likely soon to be current in social education. It may be that the *integration, or "wholeness," aspect* of the matter requires trial and testing—as is now under way—since it may well be that here is a case where the whole is something more than the sum of separate parts.

**A**S a modest contribution to a formulation of issues that may properly be raised in a searching examination of the so-called process approach the following questions are propounded:

1. Is it true that the approach provides a means (ever to be improved as knowledge grows) of seeing and organizing all human living, past and present, in terms of a small number of "processes," or "patterns of group living"? Do these few patterns cover effectively for instructional purposes the entire field of group living? Is the formulation capable of being used to give an integrated view of human living?
2. Is it true that the approach has especial value in the way it builds upon the experiential background of the pupil? Are these "processes" or "patterns" of group living in operation even in the face-to-face groups of children? Can the pupil readily be brought to see, and to see vividly, these processes at work in his own intimate groups?
3. In so far as the concepts used in the

approach are different from those in common use in instruction (the difference is not large), is it true that they are readily grasped by pupils—even by young pupils?

4. Is it true that the pupils readily carry the appropriate generalizations and concepts made in examination of their small, intimate groups over to large, impersonal groups? Every group manifests, to the extent applicable to it, these identical "patterns" or "processes." After the pupil has seen these in operation in his intimate groups does he readily see them in his larger and more impersonal groups?

5. Is it true that the pupils readily fit details and factual materials into the "patterns" or "processes," with the result that the approach can be used greatly to increase factual knowledge? Does the approach make possible an increased use of factual material—and this with no greater (and possibly less) expenditure of time and effort—because the details fall readily into balance, perspective, and system?

6. Is it true that the approach builds out from the pupil's actual experiences in such a way as (a) considerably to increase interest and (b) considerably to expedite understanding of group living, whether the groups be small and personal or large and impersonal?

7. Is it true that the approach, by emphasizing the basic "patterns" or "processes" of all group living, indicates the fundamental areas which must be cultivated if we would live together better; and hence lays such foundations as we may for applying our culture better to control our living? In the instructional field, does the approach give both a comprehensive setting to "problems of the day" and a dependable index to the fields in which "problems of tomorrow" will fall?

8. Is it true that the content and values of the specialized disciplines (history, economics, government, geography, etc.) are readily and effectively utilized in this approach without violence being done to such content and values? Can present units of

instruction, including whole courses, be presented in the perspective of an integrated view of group living? Can there, nevertheless, be left open the possibility of introducing, at such points and under such circumstances as may seem wise, other units consciously shaped in terms of certain ones of these basic processes?

9. Is it true that the approach, by emphasizing the essential framework of group living that persists in all times and places, facilitates comparative study of peoples, cultures, and institutions—and thus deepens understanding?

10. Is it true that the approach, by set-

ting current issues, institutions, and techniques in a broad perspective of basic "patterns" or "processes," diminishes the difficulties involved in handling controversial subjects and facilitates resistance to improper demands of current "pressure groups"?

11. Is it true that, by its emphasis upon group living and upon the rôle of personal participation in that living, the approach lends itself effectively to increasing the sense of personal responsibility? In an evolving culture is it an effective instrument of character education and personality molding?

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# Sesquicentennial of the Constitution

## 1787 to 1937

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

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**P**REPAREATIONS have already begun for the celebration of the sesquicentennial of the framing and adoption of the federal Constitution on a scale which will dwarf the 3,500,000 ceremonies of the Washington bicentennial into comparative insignificance. Sol Bloom has been appointed director-general of the celebrations lasting from September 17, 1937, to April 30, 1939, an appointment that indicates that celebrations will be on the same mammoth scale as were those of the Washington bicentennial, which he directed five years ago.<sup>1</sup> Every date between the anniversary of the signing of the Constitution on September 17, 1787, and its ratification by Rhode Island on May 29, 1790, will be capitalized as a significant occasion for a celebration. The climax of this nineteen-month pageant will be the celebration on April 30, 1939, of the anniversary of the inauguration of George Washington as first President of the United States, an event around which the world's fair in New York City is being planned.

A study of the Constitution now constitutes an integral part of nearly every high-

school social-studies curriculum, whether the work is carried on in American history, civics or government, problems of democracy, or economics classes. The sesquicentennial should intensify our interest and focus our attention on the significance of this document in our national life. The celebration will be made more interesting and likewise more difficult for teachers to discuss, coming as it does at a time of bitter controversy over the scope and meaning of the Constitution. Such a situation, however, should not serve as an excuse for evading the opportunity of making the study of the Constitution vital and timely. Teachers should begin now to assemble material, decide upon major emphases, and plan methods of approach. If these tasks are postponed, much valuable material will be overlooked, and calm deliberation will be replaced by hurried preparation in an atmosphere of celebration and festivity, an atmosphere seldom conducive to careful judgment and impartial reasoning.

**T**HE objectives and emphases for each school will of necessity be determined by those in charge of such study, with local situations acting as influential factors. This paper is not concerned chiefly with those attitudes and objectives. The writer can not continue with a discussion of methods of approach and materials, however, without one warning. Political celebrations, like political campaigns, tend to deteriorate as they are prolonged. Education succumbs to propaganda; knowledge and learning to rhetoric and oratory. This often appears

<sup>1</sup> Materials may be obtained by addressing the Constitutional Sesquicentennial Office, 1451 Broadway, New York City.

In this article a teacher of history at Brunswick School, Greenwich, Connecticut, offers timely suggestions for the planning of a worthy celebration of this important anniversary.

even though the efforts of those in authority try to curb such tendencies. Teachers can, if they will, act as important agencies in preventing such a lamentable situation in the forthcoming celebration.

#### METHODS OF APPROACH

THREE major methods of approach to the study of the Constitution suggest themselves. The first combines the study and use of parliamentary procedure, dramatics, and the biographical approach to history, through re-enactment of the Constitutional Convention and subsequent events dealing with the Constitution. The class, classes, or schools participating should be divided into state delegations and be assigned the names of actual representatives to the Convention.

Especially good material on these persons will be found in James Madison's "Journal of the Constitutional Convention,"<sup>2</sup> undoubtedly the most important book on the subject of the Convention. Max Farrand's *Fathers of the Constitution*<sup>3</sup> and the same author's *Framing of the Constitution*<sup>4</sup> likewise contain much valuable biographical data. The chapters in Charles A. Beard's *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution* on "The Political Doctrines" and "The Economic Interests" of the delegates will serve as further aids.<sup>5</sup>

Upon the basis of these and other facts the students may then write their own proceedings and conduct their own convention, dramatize their study in their own play, or use the plays already written by

<sup>2</sup> *Journal of the Constitutional Convention*, New York: Putnam, 2 vols., 1908; *The Debates on the Federal Convention of 1787*, ed. by G. Hunt and J. B. Scott. Publication of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of International Law. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1920; and elsewhere.

<sup>3</sup> *Chronicles of America Series*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1921.

<sup>4</sup> New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1913, based on his *Records of the Federal Convention*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 3 vols., 1911, also 1934.

<sup>5</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1935; see also reviews by Professor Phillips Bradley in this issue of *Social Education*.

others. One of the best of those already in print is the one by Margaret Porch Hamilton, *The Federal Constitution*.<sup>6</sup>

A second approach closely allied with the first is through debates, round tables, panel and forum discussions. Here the emphasis might be placed on the amendments and present-day controversies over interpretation, whereas the dramatization would probably concern itself largely with the historical phases of the Constitution. This second method adapts itself well to classes in problems of democracy and civics or government courses, while the first method is recommended especially for history groups. Such topics as "The Proposed Child Labor Amendment," "The Proposed Constitutional Amendment on Social Security Measures," "The Enforcement of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments," or "The Powers of the President" might serve for discussion.

The third method of presenting the Constitution is one of independent study, based possibly on such topics as "The Freedom of the Press," "Freedom of Speech," "Property Rights and the Constitution," "The Influence of the French and English Writers on the Constitution," "The Ratification of the Constitution," and "The Bill of Rights."<sup>7</sup> Gertrude Wolff's *One Hundred Questions on the United States Constitution*<sup>8</sup> should serve as a handy guide to teachers pressed for time.

THE materials to be used in any of these studies will not vary greatly. First of all there should be several up-to-date textbooks in American history, supplemented by copies of recent American government texts. These will provide variations on

<sup>6</sup> From Mrs F. M. Hamilton, 455 Park Avenue, Leonia, New Jersey, for 50c a copy, 30c each from two to twenty, and 20c each for more.

<sup>7</sup> Gertrude Hartman, *The Making of the Constitution*. New York: Social Science Publications, 1936, reviewed in the January issue of *Social Education*.

<sup>8</sup> Pamphlet 22 of the Modern Social Problems Series issued by American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio.

basic materials in content, interpretation, and emphasis. General histories, such as those of Edward Channing, James Ford Rhodes, and John Bach McMaster will be helpful, although not essential. Parts of James Truslow Adams' *Epic of America* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1931) and Charles and Mary Beard's *The Rise of American Civilization* (one vol. ed. New York: Macmillan, 1933) may be valuable. To supplement these should be the source books already mentioned, and also Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay's "Federalist" papers.<sup>9</sup> David S. Muzzey's *Readings in American History*,<sup>10</sup> Volume III of Albert B. Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*.<sup>11</sup> Every student should have access to studies of the Constitution presenting divergent views, such as James M. Beck's *The Constitution of the United States*,<sup>12</sup> Charles A. Beard's *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*,<sup>13</sup> and Robert Livingston Schuyler's *The Constitution of the United States*.<sup>14</sup>

The list of other books on the Constitution could be almost unending, to say nothing of the pamphlets and magazine articles available. Raymond Garfield Gettell has written a small, inexpensive book giving a concise account of the Constitution, its background and history, *The Constitution of the United States*.<sup>15</sup> Frank A. Magruder and Guy Shirk Clair have a more detailed and difficult book, *The Constitution*.<sup>16</sup>

The more recent publications have many of them been critical in tone and are valuable for those emphasizing present trends

<sup>9</sup> Variously published as, for instance, *The Federalist*, New York: Dutton, 1911.

<sup>10</sup> Rev. ed. New York: Ginn, 1921.

<sup>11</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1929.

<sup>12</sup> Garden City: Doubleday, Doran, 1936 edition.

<sup>13</sup> *ante*

<sup>14</sup> New York: Ginn, 1924.

<sup>15</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1923.

<sup>16</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933; the October issue of *Building America* on "Our Constitution," for 30 cents from 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

and possible changes. One of them is William Y. Elliott's *Need for Constitutional Reform*,<sup>17</sup> a book written by a Harvard professor of government and member of the "Brain Trust." Irving Brant's *Storm Over the Constitution*<sup>18</sup> is somewhat similar in tone and considerably shorter. Henry A. Wallace interprets the Constitution from the standpoint of a New Dealer in *Whose Constitution?*<sup>19</sup> No mention of materials would be complete without reference to books treating the relationship between the Constitution and the federal Supreme Court. Andrew C. McLaughlin's *A Constitutional History of the United States*,<sup>20</sup> Howard Lee McBain's *The Living Constitution*, especially for teachers,<sup>21</sup> Ernest Sutherland Bates' highly recommended and recent study, *The Story of the Supreme Court*,<sup>22</sup> Edwin S. Corwin's *John Marshall and the Constitution* and his *Twilight of the Supreme Court*,<sup>23</sup> and Charles Evans Hughes' *The Supreme Court*<sup>24</sup> would constitute a small reference library on that subject. For teachers wishing to test the attitudes of their class towards this famous document, there is L. I. Thurstone's *Attitude Test on the Constitution of the United States*,<sup>25</sup> which can be given to advantage in Forms A and B before and after such a study as a profitable check on the accomplishments of such a unit. Mata V. Bear's *Test on the United States Constitution*<sup>26</sup> is arranged for grades 8 to 12 and, since it takes less than a forty-minute period, is a good test for comparison of results with other schools.

<sup>17</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935.

<sup>18</sup> Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1936.

<sup>19</sup> New York: Reynal Hitchcock, 1936.

<sup>20</sup> New York: Appleton-Century, 1935.

<sup>21</sup> New York City: The Workers Education Bureau Press, 1927.

<sup>22</sup> Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1936.

<sup>23</sup> New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1934.

<sup>24</sup> Garden City: Garden City Pub. Co., 1936.

<sup>25</sup> Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1931.

<sup>26</sup> Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

# Geography for What?

RICHARD HARTSHORNE

**W**HAT are the main purposes in teaching geography? During recent years there has been a reaction against physical and place geography, which insisted on "logical" organization by regions rather than an organization around generalizations, which might seem more vital to young people because it filled needs they already felt. As a result, instead of the older regional geography, in elementary and secondary schools there have been built up courses that undertake to make the subject of geography meet immediate needs, to explain and show relationships in the world as pupils envisage it. Nevertheless, as judged by examination of courses of study and by tests given to students entering college classes, for instance, these newer courses seem far from satisfactory.

The general purpose of teaching geography has been answered by the Commission on the Social Studies. "The main function of the social sciences is the acquisition of accurate knowledge of, and informed insight into, man and society; that of social-

science instruction is the transmission of such knowledge and insight, with attendant skills and loyalties, to the individuals composing society."<sup>1</sup> If I may paraphrase a similar statement made by Professor Avery O. Craven on the "Objectives in History,"<sup>2</sup> I shall say that we teach geography in order that geography "may be learned. The first great objective is bluntly and purely the imparting and acquiring of" geographical "information." Associated with this first objective is the attainment of ability in the use of geographical material and in geographical thought. Dependent on these, and therefore secondary, is the development of such personal characteristics and attitudes as we may regard desirable.

**O**UR position, then, is that the geography teacher's first function is to bring students to an acquaintance with the nature of the different regions of the world, that is, the character of each region, the phenomena of its earth-surfaces, and the interpretation of the phenomena insofar as the students are in a position to understand them. We must be sure to teach that much as a minimum and leave other matters to follow after. If anyone thinks this is not interesting enough so that it must be peped up with dubious economic theories, he simply confesses his inability to exploit

Geography as a separate school subject has been under constant attack for many years. Yet in the same period geography as a school subject has changed greatly. This summary of objectives now generally accepted, presented by a professor of geography in the University of Minnesota, should be of interest to all social-studies teachers and curriculum workers.

<sup>1</sup> Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, *Conclusions and Recommendations*. New York: Scribner, 1934, p. 7.

<sup>2</sup> Avery O. Craven, "Objectives in History," *First Yearbook*, National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley, 1931.

and develop the child's natural interest in the world he lives in—the world about him and the world far away. "Are we really going to study countries?" the child asks the teacher. The teacher who can not utilize this very common enthusiasm has probably lost his own interest in such things. However good he may be in "teaching children," he is as unfit to teach geography as Henry Ford is to teach history.

#### DATA OF GEOGRAPHY

In geography there is a fairly general agreement that the material should be organized by units of area called regions, since the special purpose of geography is to synthesize the phenomena of a region that form its character.<sup>3</sup> The regional organization returns place geography to its proper place at the basis of all geographic work. Not that we should in any sense return to the dry daily drill on place-names, boundaries of states, and the like; but have we not swung too far away in our desire to get free of the former boredom? The geography student without a sense of place is as lost as the history student with no sense of periods—one who knows the battles of our second war with Great Britain and also those of the Napoleonic wars but never thinks of them together. Each year in a preliminary place test I find college students associating the Philippines geographically with Cuba and Porto Rico and am tempted to wonder whether this geographical confusion is a reflection on the teaching of the history of the Spanish-American War.

The question naturally arises of how we

<sup>3</sup> The various points of view of American geographers are analyzed by A. E. Parkins, "The Geography of American Geographers," *Journal of Geography*, September, 1934; that of European as well as American geographers in R. Hartshorne's "Political Geography—Its History, Aim, and Scope," *American Political Science Review*, June, 1935; the most significant expression of one group is that of H. H. Barrows, "Geography as Human Ecology," *Annals Association American Geography*, 1922, esp. p. 9; the outstanding student of the nature of geography is Alfred Hettner. His *Die Geographie, ihre Geschichte, ihr Wesen, und ihre Methoden*, Breslau, 1927, is of first importance.

can teach places without killing interest. The proper time to teach places is, it seems logical, when one is studying the areas. If the guide to geographical learning is regional, then there is no likelihood that place study will be omitted. It follows as a matter of course. Yet only those places and features ought to be studied that are significant to the study of the region. The pupil who goes from the geography to the history class ought already to know Boston, Washington, and Richmond; but he may not know Yorktown and Gettysburg for those places lack geographical significance.

In this basic study the geography teacher ought to seize the opportunity to teach accuracy, wherever accuracy is really significant to their understanding. We can not expect pupils to locate such a place as Moscow more accurately than somewhere on the tableland between the headwaters of the Volga and its tributaries, but the pupil who places London one-half of an inch away from the Thames fails completely to understand the significant location of that ancient bridgehead city, which has become one of the greatest river seaports.

ORGANIZATION on some special social principle, such as "interdependence," tends to over-emphasize one or two aspects of a region, which may, by their essential unimportance, give pupils a distorted view. The student who has learned of Java as an island from which other countries get sugar will hardly have a true picture of it as a land where over thirty million people cultivate their paddy-fields with the most extraordinary intensity in order that they may produce rice, corn, cassava, and other crops for their daily food, and who use but a sixth of their crop-land for the cash crops such as sugar cane, coffee, tea, rubber. To ask the pupil, as a "major understanding," whether "South America needs our commercial products more than we need theirs" is to lead him directly away from a real understanding of the extreme differences between the

various countries and regions, and of the almost complete isolation of many of them from each other.

Likewise, the urge to "socialize" geography has apparently caused many to ignore the requirement that if pupils are to acquire anything like accurate knowledge of geographical material, the writers of textbooks and course plans must make some effort to have such knowledge themselves. One curriculum committee prides itself on a course drawn up "not so much by the committee itself, but by the suggestions and material sent in by all the geography teachers of the city," overlooking the fact that relatively few of these, or of the committee members, had had any adequate training in the subject. In a widely used school pamphlet European Russia is divided into three main areas: "the swamp and forest region, the blackearth region, and the sandy steppe." Leaving aside the inclusion of Muscovy and the Arctic coast in a single region, think of the difficulty confronting those few teachers who know that the steppe is commonly not sandy, but that in fact the blackearth is a typical steppe soil!

**T**HE great word in recent geography teaching is "relationships." Geography as regional study does include the phenomena of the area that are significantly related to other phenomena of the area, so that the study of relationships is a part of geography—as it is of all science. So far all modern schools of geography agree;<sup>4</sup> but an over-emphasis on "relationships," rather than on regions, apparently leads course planners into a number of serious errors.

In the first place, this emphasis leads to a confusion in organization. Courses can be, and have been, organized by types of

<sup>4</sup> Any one who may be misled to fear that the newer ideas in geography call for an abandonment of interest in relationships are referred to A. Hettner, *Geographie*, pp. 129-30, 132, or to the quotations in R. Hartshorne, "Political Geography" or to P. James, "The Terminology of Landscape," *Annals Association American Geography*, July, 1934, pp. 81-82.

relationships. As technical training for professional geographers, this kind of course probably has its place, but that place is hardly in the elementary schools, where the first requirement is a knowledge of the areas of the world. The more recent course plans fortunately do respond to this need, but only part way, so that they fail to provide the pupils with a clear system for organizing their factual information.

Because of this lack of clear focussing of interest, the differences between regions, which should have first attention, are slighted and may easily be overlooked. The teacher readily accepts the conventional or political divisions of the lands, as "the North Central States," a unit of some use statistically but otherwise highly objectionable to the geographer. Brazil, for example, is frequently studied as a single and complete unit. Only a few minor subheadings may suggest differences between the regions of that country, though actually they are as different, and as separated, as our South is from Guatemala. No wonder college students insist on putting coffee in Amazonia and exporting rubber from Rio de Janeiro. They even think of southeastern Brazil as backward, since they have been taught that "Brazil has advanced at a slow rate." Another example may be taken from one of the better courses of study, in which the state of Minnesota is studied as a whole with its activities, crops, and products, in order to find specific relationships all over the state. Such an organization by "relationships" teaches the pupil many things about the state but fails to focus attention on the extraordinarily significant division of the state into four distinct areas, bound to adjoining parts of other states, the corn, hog, beef raising region, the dairy region, the commercial grain and potato farming region, and the barren country of the iron mines. On the other hand a regional organization would have, of necessity, brought out all the "relationships" in the attempt to interpret regional differences, as well as shown the important regional divisions

and the grain, railroad, and waterway complications of the two urban districts. Also if the students ask why the farmers in this part of the dairy district produce milk for butter rather than cheese, as in parts of Wisconsin, the teacher will not be so tempted to find a climatic or other "natural" reason but may ascribe it easily to a human one, or even—one hopes it is not asking too much—say simply, "I do not know."

**C**ONTRASTING with this attitude, the requirement always to find relationships to the natural environment stimulates the writers of course plans to propose relationships that seem to me in many cases very doubtful. I can well believe that this difficulty may be raised in class discussion, and the teacher is then put to it to force the relationship. With most of the students she will succeed, but some will know she is faking it. For example: "Human beings have always tended to settle where the climate is mild." This, in Minnesota! In many cases where these plans call for the teacher to explain the relationship, she may not know what it is. "How have the geographic conditions of China and its surroundings prevented the growth of a strong central government?" is one of the things a seventh-grade teacher in one of our cities is supposed to explain. Surely Hettner is right here; it is far better merely to accept the fact of China's disunity without attempting to falsify or "bluff" an explanation. The insistent demand that the teacher find relationships has no doubt increased geography teachers' bluffing by several hundred per cent. Even worse, perhaps, is the indoctrinating of students with presumed relationships that are probably false. Much of the work in college teaching is more or less vain attempt to eradicate some of these. Thus: "The damp, steamy climate of the tropical rain forest causes man to degenerate"; or, "the lesser development of Mediterranean lands today is a result of the balmy climate." When one reads in certain courses all the things the

geography teacher is called upon to explain "insofar as possible, in terms of the natural environment," one shudders to think of the vast amount of false information that the students must receive. It is only fair to note that the worst of these are found in courses drawn up by teachers unhampered by any thorough training in geography. One is reminded of Whitbeck's observation that the wildest theories of geographic relationships are not from geographers but from other social scientists.

For some teachers, the search for relationships carries them easily into problems outside the field of geography, problems for which the geographic data studied by the students can hardly provide adequate solutions. How shall the seventh-grade student of geography be able to discuss "the advantages for Argentina of American ownership of their meat-packing plants," or "find evidence of prosperity in Soviet Russia"?

#### PRINCIPLES OF GEOGRAPHY

**I**N addition to factual material and specific relations between individual sets of facts, every branch of science develops more general principles, generalizations of the individual relationships of facts.

Perhaps we should admit to those seeking to incorporate geography into a social-science curriculum that this field does not have today any large body of well established principles. Does history? In any case it does not strengthen the subject to use it, in teaching, merely as a means of arriving at generalizations that are really derived from economics. "Modern industry would be impossible without some form of fuel." "Progress in industry requires an inventive people." "The chief characteristic of industrial civilizations is their interdependence." These are typical of the generalizations listed in one course of study at the end of a half-semester's study of "industrial countries"; but nothing is said of understanding that the two great industrial regions of the world are in eastern North America and northwestern Europe, where

coal and iron are found close together near densely populated agricultural areas, where commerce and special historical conditions have stimulated inventiveness and larger production, and where the climate is stimulating to workers.

**G**ENERAL principles are distinctly more difficult to develop and more uncertain in the social sciences than in the natural sciences. I presume they occupy a very minor part of the history curriculum for that reason. In any case, how can we expect elementary school children to "develop and formulate simple, broad, sound generalizations of geographic principles?" Surely this is beyond the capacity of the average school teacher, or even of a superior one. Perhaps the safest rule would be to limit such generalizations or principles to those that have been well established and clearly demonstrated in the field of geography. This qualification, for example, would exclude Ellsworth Huntington's more dramatic theories of climatic control. If these are mentioned at all they should be stated not as principles but as possible theories. Otherwise the geography instruction will merely conflict with that given in history or other fields, and bring the geographer, who can not prove the theories, into ill repute. Incidentally it makes for additional conflict, when the student is told in college that his elementary instruction was true.

Much the same is particularly true in the aspect of the subject called political geography. Fewer fields of study have such a splendid collection of beautiful theories, almost none of which have been demonstrated to be false.<sup>5</sup> Here especially, it seems to me, we shall be wise to confine ourselves to the facts concerning political areas and boundaries and not get lost in the question of "why Japan entered Manchuria."

<sup>5</sup> This no way intended to imply that political geography should be excluded from geography, see R. Hartshorne, *American Political Science Review*, June, August, 1935.

It is chiefly in the physiographic and in the economic aspects of geography that principles have been developed which are sufficiently accepted to be proper material for elementary work. We know, with some reasonable degree of accuracy, principles of the relation of crops to natural conditions, even of types of agriculture to natural and human factors, and, perhaps to a lesser degree, of at least some types of manufacturing to such factors as coal deposits, population areas, and trade routes. We can properly ask students, given such and such natural and human conditions, what type or types of development might be expected in an area, now, or in the near future. But how can the student possibly answer such a question for "South America as a whole"—South America where conditions vary from the equatorial forests of the Amazon to the cold of Tierra del Fuego or the high Andes, the population from the ignorant primitive Indian tribes to highly civilized neo-Europeans of Buenos Aires? Only a truly regional study can lead to specific answers different for each region.

The evidence from entering tests given in college classes in geography suggests that the emphasis on teaching of generalizations leads to a slighting of factual study in any form. We can accept the necessity of teaching students to think, but we must give them something to think with. Engineers do not build bridges with mathematical formulae alone but with steel and concrete. If too much time is spent in teaching doubtful generalizations the fundamental geographic data will be slighted, and what is left be merely a poor course in economic and political theory.

#### DEVELOPMENT OF SKILLS

**S**HARING with all disciplines as well as with the other social sciences the capacity to provide information and to develop various abilities, geography is, of the social sciences, the one particularly adapted to the development of the scientific method. Geography, founded firmly on such natural

sciences as physiography and climatology but reaching into the social sciences in its outcomes, has the opportunity to transfer, from the one major field to the other, standards of rigorous demonstration of relations based on measurements. However, it will never succeed in this if it indulges in loose and undemonstrable theories. For this reason we ought to look skeptically at texts and courses prepared by those whose knowledge and interest in geography lie more in its generalizations than in its facts.

There are certain other abilities in the development of which geography stands almost alone, skill in observation of landscape and the cultivation of visual memory, making and reading maps, and the special technique of thought that we may call "thinking geographically."

The technique of observations of the landscapes in which we live or move has been too much neglected in all our curricula, from the grades to the university. Other subjects teach students to observe particular elements as trees, rocks, birds, and clouds; but only geography teaches to observe, comprehend, and retain the entire complex of the view, forests and fields, slopes, hilltops and valleys, crops, factories, railroads, and homes. Thereby is fostered the native ability of nearly every child to remember things visually, a skill that almost all other school subjects tend to destroy by atrophy. This is not merely a photographic memory. To one trained in geography the experiences of travel become richer in content, and the esthetic appreciation of landscapes is increased by a synthetic understanding of the variety of its meanings.

#### MAPS

LOCAL field trips, pictures as basic materials of study rather than mere decorative illustrations, and above all maps provide the means for such geographical training. The peculiar special tool of geography, however, as everyone in practice recognizes, is the map. So much of geo-

graphical information is recorded on maps, so much can only be taught from maps, that the map has become the special language of geography just as figures and symbols form the special language of mathematics. As other fields which use those symbols, for instance physics and engineering, expect mathematics to teach students how to use them, so history, economics, and other fields that use maps, and which should indeed use them even more if historians and economists had been trained to do so, can rightly demand that a major obligation of geography toward the social-science curriculum is to teach students how to work with maps.

The teaching of maps must therefore be constantly in the mind of the geography teacher as an absolutely basic and essential obligation of geography instruction. If that is slighted for some new social objective, we are resigning from our special field to compete on doubtful terms in other fields.

This does not for a moment mean that geography is a handmaiden of history to teach all kinds of maps and all places on the map that history might later like to use. Our function, it seems to me, is to develop the student's ability to understand and interpret maps as shorthand descriptions, to comprehend visually the features shown on the map in their proper relations (the confusion of "up" and "down" with north and south is only the best known form of map illiteracy), to retain maps in memory, to combine and interpret several maps showing different aspects of the same area, and to think in terms of the map rather than merely verbally.

Students who have developed that valuable habit of thinking in terms of maps will not be content with any discussion of problems in China that does not refer to maps. If they become economists they will not study the location of the iron and steel industry in the United States in terms of the names of states or be content with a crude map showing location only by states; if they become history teachers they will not be

content with texts that devote a short introductory chapter to geography, slip a few maps through the other chapters, and forget to say anything more about the matter.

In order to accomplish this it seems to me we must have more rather than less map work. All geography teachers should read with care the test studies published in the yearbook of the National Society for Education on the teaching of geography and Miss Parker's very illuminating discussion of them, with constructive suggestions on methods.<sup>6</sup> Anyone who thinks that training in the use and memory of maps requires little special attention will be startled by the difficulties even after several years of work. What looks like a fairly simple map is in fact a highly complicated device employing many symbols to represent information that would take chapters to record in words, and the comparison of different maps for the same area can be a work requiring highly developed ability. To carry these maps in the mind is the work of visual memory, and here again geography almost alone of school subjects develops that valuable faculty.

To learn the use and memory of maps one valuable practice is actually to work on them. Whether there is sufficient value in having children draw their own coast-lines on blank paper seems doubtful; but outline maps and crayons are cheap laboratory materials, and children can readily be shown how to mark in places, crop areas, or geographic regions and have the satisfaction of producing usable results. I know of no other laboratory work in the school grades

<sup>6</sup> "The Teaching of Geography," *Thirty-Second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Pub. Co., 1933.

that requires so little equipment and produces as useful products, in addition to the secondary character values attained by such work.

Some readers who are employed to teach geography may ask at this point how map work can be made interesting to children. Judging from the experience of other teachers there is no problem of making work with maps interesting to children. They are, most of them, more easily interested in that than in almost any kind of work. The problem is rather whether map work interests the teacher. If it does not, there is probably little to be done except to recognize frankly that anyone not interested in that kind of work is out of place trying to teach geography. Principals and superintendents should be told: "If any of your geography teachers do not want to work with maps, if they do not in fact insist upon map work, then take them out of the geography classes. Let them teach social problems, arithmetic, or what they like. Only those who are interested in geography can impart it to children."

Finally geography has its special technique of thought which we call "thinking geographically." It is doubtful if this means simply to think in terms of individual relationships between man's activities and the natural environment, since historians and others have long been concerned with some of these, and sociologists more recently have been greatly interested in this line of thought. The special method of the geographer is by using observation, pictures, maps, or text description, to think of phenomena in their regional, or simply, areal, setting, as historians do of phenomena in a particular period of time, and to consider the arrangement and relationships of the phenomena within a region.

# The World Outside

ELDON W. MASON

WALTER LIPPmann, in his *Public Opinion* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1922), alluded to "the world outside, and the pictures in our heads." Because the school has the child under its influence the better part of one thousand hours during the school year, its responsibility is obvious in the direction of providing an accurate picture of his world.

An attempt, admittedly imperfect, is being made in Marshall High School to get at the real world. It is based on the assumption that, if the challenge to intelligent citizenship is to be met, the approach to the social studies must be improved enough to prepare high-school graduates to confront an adult world with a far greater degree of comprehension than their predecessors ever had. It is not enough to strike a posture of beatific faith in the maturing possibilities latent in an educational system that contents itself with exposing pupils to a description of the complexities of our adult world, and to believe that it will be an effective training when youth qualifies for the exer-

cise of the ballot. The account of the quickening of the spiritual ardor of the Apostle Paul on the road to Damascus makes good reading. We can not, we dare not, anticipate a comparable experience for American youth in the area of citizenship in its best sense. It was, and is, the conviction of the writer, that only as the school brings youth to experience actuality will it begin to meet its obligations. For want of a better name we call our experiment the educational trip idea.

THE pupil selects one or two phases of the life of his community. His choices may have either a vocational or avocational basis, or both. John Jones chose radio engineering, because he wanted to explore the field as a possible vocation. Mary Smith made a study of settlement houses, not because she expects to be a social worker, but because she thought it was her duty to know something of their program. Among the phases of Minneapolis life studied have been schools, public health, hospitals and nursing, radio, politics and government, social agencies, community history, music, art, business and industry, labor problems, service organizations, transportation, newspapers, parks and playgrounds, the stage, churches, and women's organizations.

## HOME CITY

HAVING selected his field or fields of observation, the pupil then proceeds to do a substantial amount of reading in preparation: surveys, reports, biography,

Trips have long been important in European geography and history teaching. In recent years many American schools have experimented in various ways with direct observation. Mr Mason describes an ambitious and effective program of visits carried out over a period of years in the Marshall High School, Minneapolis.

and novels. This is supplemented with a series of interviews with leaders in these fields. Before an interview is held, a list of questions bearing on these fields is sent to the person to be interviewed. Those interviewed have been incredibly generous in laying themselves open to the purposes of the pupils. Over a period of three years, only one person has refused to co-operate—one of those who "couldn't be bothered with high-school youngsters." A genuine effort is made to concentrate on such questions as will stimulate the thinking of these high-school juniors and seniors. We are not so much concerned with the amount and quality of paper and ink used by newspapers as with the influence of the advertiser on editorial policy, the political bent of the paper, the justification of news policies, or the training that editors recommend for those interested in newspaper work.

#### FIELD TRIPS

WITH some degree of understanding of our local community's organization at these points, we then turned to one or more communities removed from our own. Thus far we have studied Chicago, and, in Minnesota, Bemidji, Rochester, and Faribault. Influential persons in Minneapolis and in these outside communities aided us. For example, when John Jones interviewed leaders in radio engineering in Minneapolis, he asked their help in obtaining introductions to leaders in Chicago. These local persons wrote letters for John to radio engineers in Chicago, and then from that point John carried on the correspondence.

In addition, the trip-group asked for reports, surveys, and other materials dealing with the other cities and towns before they left Minneapolis. For example, virtually all of the twenty-six boys and girls who went to Chicago read *Chicago* by Lloyd Lewis and Henry Justin Smith (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1929). Further, citing but one case, a girl interested in settlement

houses read Jane Addams' *Twenty Years at Hull House* and *The Second Twenty Years; Growing Up with the City* by Louise De-Koven Bowen; *The Natural History of a Delinquent Career* by Clifford R. Shaw; and *The Taxi-Dance Hall* by Paul G. Cressey;<sup>1</sup> and also a number of magazine and newspaper articles relating to the field. Through the use of a quite exhaustive questionnaire submitted to the high-school students in the towns studied, we were able to acquire a good deal of information about the social, political, and economic anatomy of the communities to be studied at first hand.

THE trips are made during the Easter holiday. In 1932-33, the first year the idea was tried out, four students made a trip to Duluth, Hibbing, and St. Cloud. The next year twenty-six students, fourteen boys and twelve girls, went to Chicago. Last year thirty-three boys and girls divided into three groups of ten, twelve, and eleven each, studied Bemidji, Rochester, and Faribault, Minnesota. This school year about fifteen of the 1935 group will study Winnipeg. The eleventh graders, new to the experience, will study two or three iron range towns in northern Minnesota.

The 1933 Chicago trip-group was housed in a dormitory at the University of Chicago. A different plan was attempted in the study of Rochester, Bemidji, and Faribault. We thought that, if pupils could be housed with leaders in the fields they were studying, they would have an opportunity to observe them at greater length and in a variety of settings. Thus those studying hotels and rooming houses stayed in those places, provided they were reputable, those studying newspapers in the homes of newspaper editors, those observing politics and government in the homes of politicians and government officials.

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<sup>1</sup> Addams, New York: Macmillan, 1910 and 1930; Bowen, New York: Macmillan, 1926; Shaw, Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1931; Cressey, Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1932.

The problem of financing these trips is one of no mean proportions. Yet it is remarkable what a group of high-school pupils can do if the urge is there. Shall only those who are able to pay their entire expenses be invited to associate themselves with such a group? Some persons have proposed this. Well, the boy who apparently derived the most benefit from the Chicago trip was a boy who had to borrow a coat and a vest to make the trip. We decided that each should pledge what he or she felt possible. We discouraged the members of the group from asking parents for money. The contributions have run as high as eighteen dollars from a girl whose parents are well-to-do. One boy, whose family is actually on relief, of course contributed nothing. One girl gave piano lessons at fifty cents each. One boy carried papers for several months and turned over his earnings. Twelve boys sold confections at a national skating meet. Other boys washed cars, removed ashes, and ran errands. Other girls took care of small children. Additional funds were raised through group effort. Candy sales, movies, paper sales, and parent-sponsored benefit bridges were held.

The enthusiasm of the parents of these pupils has been no less pronounced than that of the pupils themselves. Each year several meetings are held with the pupils reporting progress to the parents.

In order that all members of the group might acquire a more or less adequate picture of all fields, the group met at least once a week at Marshall High School, on Mondays after school, to listen to the results of readings and interviews, transact group business, and hear speakers on various subjects. While in Chicago, Bemidji, Rochester, and Faribault, the groups met each day, usually early in the morning, to report on the previous day's interviews. By way of record, each member of the group has a notebook in which he keeps an account of interviews, notes on speeches heard, and briefs of printed matter read. In addition, at the conclusion of each year's study, each

member of the group prepares a complete statement of his experience, which is incorporated in a report. These reports are placed in the school library.

Up to the present, any eleventh or twelfth grader who expresses interest is eligible to join the group. The feeble-spirited and the joy-riders are usually weeded out in the five or six months of attending meetings regularly, doing a reasonable amount of reading, interviewing, and raising funds. It is noticeable that these pupils are their own severest critics. They listen to no feeble excuses for non-attendance or lack of genuine co-operation. If group members are eliminated, it is the result of a vote taken by the entire group. Of the sixty-three students who have participated in the trips during the past three years, I should say that not over three failed to measure up. In the case of these three, each derived infinite profit but failed to share sufficiently in the experience.

Until, and unless, additional teachers are found who are willing to give their time and energy, the numbers sharing in such an experience can not increase. One teacher can not assume the responsibility for the infinite amount of detail involved for a group of more than thirty-five. It has taken three years to win any appreciable number of teachers to a favorable viewpoint. In that process the participating pupils, the parents, and the laymen have lent their support with much more alacrity than those in the profession. One unconvinced teacher said to me recently, "Why make all the fuss about this? My daughter has been to Chicago. She has been through the Field Museum, Hull House, Marshall Field's, and the Tribune building." Yet precisely our point was this: we had no desire merely to "go through" these places and others; we wanted to know what mechanism made things run as they did in Minneapolis and Chicago. We wanted not merely external representation, but visible, intimate reality!

## PURPOSES AND SUCCESS

FROM a long-time viewpoint, what we hope to do is to acquire a picture of mid-western life, large city, smaller cities, towns of varying size, farm life, as well as such geographical factors in the life of the middle west as, for instance, rivers. No one, certainly not myself, has any illusions about these attempts. They have been crude and groping.

Taking the Chicago trip as an illustration, though, one may say that certain obvious benefits resulted. The social horizon of all the members was lifted, and they were aroused to a realization of the complexity of the contemporary world, of the responsibilities of capital and the dignity of labor, of the contributions to American life of various racial groups, and of the necessity of participation of all citizens in the penalties inherent in social stupidity. The trip gave them a new awareness of their own community and of the world outside their community. The personal glimpses of the sacrificial devotion of men and women who have helped build the life of the two communities, Minneapolis and Chicago, stimulated in them a desire to make their own effective contribution to any community in which they might live. A number of these students are now participating on a voluntary service basis in various phases of social and political life in Minneapolis. Almost without exception graduated trip-group members have contributed to the costs of subsequent trips.

The trip brought to the twenty-six pupil-members and the five teachers its own immediate lessons in co-operation. The teachers also were "humanized" in the estimation of the students. These thirty-one

persons lived together for the better part of a week with no evidence of irritation or bad feeling. Not one act that might have been regretted was committed. Furthermore the students discovered and appreciated the co-operation of both citizens and parents, which proved, too, that, if an idea has a measure of vitality, parents will rally to its support, and the citizens of standing and influence in the community will give time and energy.

VOCATIONAL and avocational stimulation resulted from the trip, and a good deal of vocational guidance of a high order resulted. Certain less important developments ought to be noticed, such as the acquisition of facility in special vocabulary remarkable enough to be noticed by several persons interviewed and a sense of personal responsibility for presenting to the others an adequate picture of the pupil's own particular field of observation in Minneapolis and in Chicago.

As Dr August C. Krey of the University of Minnesota, who has expressed some degree of interest in our efforts, has said: "The idea is fundamentally sound. Such an experience has all the thrill of adventure. The emotional elements which are thus generated can be used, and obviously in a number of cases in your own party were used, to build up a very sound learning. After all, the amount and quality of social learning which can be built up through words alone is limited. Direct contact increases the number of stimuli through which learning is accomplished almost infinitely and therefore insures a more vivid and a more permanent grasp of 'the lesson' involved."

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# "Contemporary Civilization" at Columbia

HORACE TAYLOR

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THE course called Contemporary Civilization has just entered its eighteenth year. It has grown old enough to go to college. It is, indeed, singularly appropriate that its age is just equal to the average of freshmen entering college. It is not specifically trying to gain admittance to your college or your school, but it will be glad to come in case you want it, or any part of it, or any modification of it. I will present the *vita* of the course and will do what I can to state its qualifications.

THE course at Columbia was a war baby. Its period of incubation was the period in which the United States took part in the World War. It first opened its eyes on this "buzzing, booming confusion" in the fall of 1919. During the war years, 1917 and 1918, a course was instituted in Columbia College which bore the somewhat cryptic title, "War Aims." It was instituted because,

Associate professor of economics in Columbia University, a member of the staff of Contemporary Civilization since it was instituted, the author gives an account of the origin and development of an effort systematically to introduce college freshmen and sophomores to the world in which they live. The paper was read before the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers at New York on November 20.

following our entrance to the war, some of the members of the Columbia faculty realized that very few people in this country knew much of what the war was about. Throwing some light on this subject seemed to these members of the faculty to be an important educational obligation.

With the close of the war late in 1918, the study of "War Aims" was relegated to historical research, and the course in that subject was discontinued. But the same members of the faculty as had sponsored the "War Aims" course began then to wonder if there were not some more stable basis on which to organize the study of the contemporary world and the trends of its civilization. They decided that an appropriate feature of the curriculum of Columbia College would be a course in "Peace Aims." Their faculty colleagues came to agree with them, and so in 1919 a course required of all freshmen, bearing the title, "An Introduction to Contemporary Civilization in the West," was inaugurated. In 1929 the course was expanded to a two-year program required of all freshmen and all sophomores.

It never was intended that this course should deal with all phases of modern civilization or modern culture. From its inception the study of the course has been confined to aspects of the western world; no attention is given to existing primitive cultures or to the rich civilizations of the Orient. The course has been further limited by being confined to certain general, but definite, phases of western civilization.

These are: how people make a living; how people live together; and how people understand the world and their relations to it. The analysis of the course which I will now present will be clearer if these focal considerations are kept in mind.

#### WHAT Is It?

**T**O describe the course, with the educational purposes and premises pertaining thereto, is not an easy undertaking. I hope that you will have patience with me if I do not describe it as clearly as both of us would like. To obtain a description of it requires, in my judgment, that one take or teach the course, and thus obtain an insider's view of its content and organization. To anyone who wishes to go further in examining the course than I will be able to do in this paper, may I suggest that a conspectus of the freshman year of the course is presented in the syllabus "An Introduction to Contemporary Civilization in the West," and that the scope of the sophomore year is given in the two-volume textbook, *Contemporary Problems in the United States*.<sup>1</sup>

Professor Irving Fisher, when discussing a complex subject, used to say that it consists of three parts. First, what is it? Second, what does it mean? Third, what of it? This plan of attack seems to me to be especially well suited to the present discussion.

In the first place, then, what is the course? The shortest possible answer is that it represents the attempt made in Columbia College to acquaint students with the institutional environment, both intellectual and material, in which they live. More specifically, it is a course required of every freshman and every sophomore in Columbia College, which meets five hours a week during the freshman year and three hours a week during the sophomore year, and which seeks to serve the purpose that has just been stated. Specifically, also, the stu-

dents are divided into sections of about thirty members each. Each section has its own instructor who meets with it for the entire year. The instructors are drawn from the departments of history, philosophy, public law, and economics.

**T**HE first year of the course deals with materials and subjects that ordinarily are regarded as historical. These materials and subjects are historical, however, only in the widest sense of that term. They include the history of ideas as well as that of changing political, religious, scientific, educational, and economic institutions. Strictly speaking, this year of study may more properly be regarded as genetic than as historical. The study of history is concerned primarily with the processes that characterize certain epochs in mankind's affairs in the past. The freshman year of the course, on the other hand, is focused on the institutions of the present. It seeks to show what these institutions are by accounting for where and when they came from and how they have changed in getting from there and then to here and now.

An example may illustrate what I mean. There exists at present a set of widely spread habits of thought and action toward material things, which habitual ways of thinking and acting are the essence of the institution of private property. Assuming that it is important for students in college to gain some understanding of contemporary property relations, we believe that the best way to do it is by turning to the past and tracing the processes by which these habits of thought and action came to be. (Parenthetically, I must say that we do not believe that we can fully explain such an abstraction as property in the course we are offering. But if we are able to get students to think of this and other sets of institutions as emerging out of cultural environments in the past we believe that we have advanced the process of their education.)

The illustration I have offered gives no indication of the related parts that go to

<sup>1</sup> By Horace Taylor with the collaboration of Columbia College Associates. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1936-37.

make the whole of the freshman year of the course. The several institutional threads that are followed are very much entangled with each other. The individual threads are picked up at some convenient point in the past—a point from which the further developments lead up to the contemporary scene. Thus, for example, we study the ways in which the nation, state, and absolute monarchy came to supersede feudalism in western Europe, the process by which absolutistic forms of government gave way to democratic forms, and the ways in which democratic forms in their turn are yielding in many places to dictatorships. But changes in governmental forms have occurred *pari passu* with other changes. There have been concomitant changes in political philosophy, in the organization of production, in intercourse among persons and among nations, in economic doctrines, in national and imperial policies.

**O**R let us consider another set of relationships that may conveniently start with a change in intellectual horizons and attitudes. The beginnings of modern physical science were accompanied by important changes in the allegiances and in the faith of men, in the trends of political and economic thought, in the organization of commerce, industry, and finance, in the policies and alliances of nations, in the positions of various economic classes. We attempt to treat these processes as mutually conditioning each other.

I hope that these sketchy illustrations will help to make clear what the freshman year of the course is. I feel that the account I have given is undesirably impressionistic; but I feel also that little else is possible in the time at my disposal.

The second year of the course analyzes certain of the contemporary institutions whose genesis and development were studied during the first year. It deals with materials that fall traditionally within the special provinces of economics and government. The situations studied are primarily

economic and political situations, and the methods, studied with a view to modifying or improving these situations, are primarily economic governmental methods. Although the materials of the course are economic and political, the methods of treating these materials do not correspond to those ordinarily used in elementary courses in economics and government. At no point in this year of work is there developed any theory of value or theory of the state. The method which actually is employed is that of analytical description of going institutional affairs in their own terms and in terms that seem to present the most fruitful and provocative set of relationships among the various institutions studied.

**T**HIS sophomore year of the course is centered around the problem of economic security. The first semester is devoted to presenting the conditions essential to security and the conditions that make for insecurity in our existing economic and political structure. At the beginning of the course, after examining the general problem of security, students are given the facts of national productive capacity and of the distribution of the national income. They are expected to relate these facts to a conception of potential optimum use of productive resources, and to appraise prevailing standards of living according to the minimum income requirements for security at a health and decency level of living. At this point students are also acquainted, in a fairly systematic manner, with a conspectus of the current "New Deal" program and the implicit elements of that program which bear, in one way or another, upon economic security. Particular phases of this program are studied in some detail in later sections in connection with the particular economic or political situations to which they pertain.

Following this introduction, there are several general topics to each of which several meetings of the course are devoted. In the order of their consideration, these are:

the organization and methods of American business, with special reference to corporate organization and finance; the organization of the system of money and credit, with particular regard to the functions of the banking system; international economic relations; the special problems of security that apply to agriculturists; and the same considerations as they apply to wage earners. The emphasis in each of these divisions is on the conditions of security or of insecurity involved. Specific attempts at control or regulation by governmental bodies and other agencies are presented in their respective contexts.

THE work of the second semester consists chiefly of the study of more or less systematic ways of dealing with the conditions of insecurity that have been presented. This work commences with an analysis of the structure and functions of law and government in the United States, with special regard to the part played by courts in determining what action can be taken toward economic affairs by governmental bodies. Following this analysis of government and law we proceed to the study of: governmental regulation of those industries recognized by courts to be "affected with a public interest"; the state as a spending agency and as a raiser of revenues; provisions against economic insecurity worked out by governmental agencies—such provisions, for example, as social insurance in its current application in this country, and relief work carried on since the beginnings of the depression; the co-operative movement as a means by which people have voluntarily joined in attempting to deal with certain economic insecurities, with special reference to the current growth of consumers' co-operatives in the United States; alternative systematic attempt to achieve security being made in Russia, in Italy, and in Germany (in each of these cases a *conspectus* of the particular nation's program is presented and the objectives served by the several programs are examined); the

conflicting systematic views as to political and economic organization in the United States. (There is presented here a series of brief accounts of fascism, socialism and communism in this country and a systematic view of economic planning.)

Such an outline as I have presented must give this year of study the appearance of being extremely schematic, of consisting, in fact, of a series of different subjects independently studied. This is due, I believe, to the brevity of my description. As a matter of fact a very considerable effort has been made to relate the several sections of study to each other and to keep the work focused consistently and clearly on the general problem of economic security.

#### WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

FROM this brief account of the course we may pass now to our second question. What does it mean? It must be apparent that whatever educational meaning the course will have will depend on the effectiveness of its organization and the pedagogical success of the instructors engaged in the course. Thus, one thing that it means is that it has been necessary to select and to maintain a staff of instructors with special qualifications for work of this kind.

In general the staff of the course has consisted of younger men drawn from the departments of history, philosophy, public law, and economics who have been willing to sacrifice their normal academic ambitions to specialize in their particular fields in order to work in the very wide range covered by this course. It has meant to these men, trained as they individually are in special fields, that they must give a great deal of study to parts of the course not comprehended within their respective areas of specialized competency. On the part of the staff as a whole it has meant years of consistent work toward the improvement of the course itself. The freshman course began seventeen years ago, and the syllabus used in the course is now in its eleventh edition. Most of the successive editions of the syllabus

bus have represented substantial revision and recasting of emphasis. The two-volume textbook used in the sophomore year of the course is revised each year. These revisions have been quite elaborate in the sense that it has been sought not only to keep the work up to date, but also to improve its organization and its emphasis. I do not want to lay undue stress on this particular meaning of the course in contemporary society, but in answering the question—what does it mean?—I think it should be made clear that it means among other things a very large amount of work on the part of the staff.

As regards the educational meaning of the course, there are two phases that ought to be stressed. In the first place, we believe that every student who graduates from college should have a working understanding of the going institutions which make up our economic, our political, and our intellectual lives. We believe also that such a course as we have developed offers, so far as formal course study is concerned, a more effective means of achieving this purpose than has proved in our experience to be possible through conventional courses in economics, political science, philosophy, and history. In this connection it should be pointed out also that many of the students in college do not expect to specialize in social studies but will, instead, devote most of their attention as students to such fields as literature, natural science, or the classics. Such students as these could not conceivably take a sufficient variety of specialized courses in philosophy, history, political science, and economics to cover the range of institutional affairs treated in this two-year course. Against this particular educational meaning must be set the charge that the course is superficial, which will be returned to later in this paper.

The second educational meaning of the course is that it serves as an introduction to advanced study in the specialized fields of philosophy, history, political science, and economics. We in Columbia College believe that the roots of the social sciences are

closely intertwined, and that, in order to do technical work in one or another of these fields, we must examine first their common roots. According to this view the substance of history, both in the sense of shifting institutional life and in the sense of intellectual change, constitutes also the substance of contemporary ways of making a living, of living together, and of understanding the world. Our experience has led us to believe that this work, done in the first two years in college, enables students, when they become juniors and seniors, to do more advanced technical work in their specialized fields than they otherwise would be able to do, and to understand the contexts in which technical problems present themselves more completely than would be possible in the absence of such freshman and sophomore study.

#### WHAT OF IT?

HAVING presented a brief description of what the course is and a summary account of what it means, we arrive now at our last question—what of it? As regards educational objectives and the general view on which the course rests, I think that a part of the answer to this question is implicit in what has already been said. The rapidly increasing complexity of the institutions among which people live gives rise in our judgment to an educational problem of the first importance. The liberalistic doctrines, on which our economic system is based and according to which political democracy is conceived, regard effective action as following from the choices made by free people. More than that, these liberalistic premises have given rise to an economic and political structure in which people—whether they want to or not—are compelled to make choices.

There appear to be two general complications which arise in practice from these conditions. The first is that people, in order to choose effectively, must understand rather thoroughly the nature of the alternatives presented, and also the effects on

themselves of the choices made. The second is that the total of the choices made by a great many different persons all acting at the same time may not be consistent with the wishes of any of the persons concerned. The phenomenon of choice is not as simple, either in its expression or in its effects, as the eighteenth-century liberals and the nineteenth-century utilitarians were accustomed to assume. In order that any person's choices may work out consistently with his own interests requires that he understand the alternatives among which he is choosing, and also that he understand the probable effects of his own actions and of the actions of others. It is only by this means that the "enlightened self-interest," which individualism is expected to express, can find even a partial fulfillment. The course deals with many matters concerning which almost everyone knows something, and concerning which also a great many people entertain the unwarranted belief that they know a great deal. We do not believe that a person comes to know anything very important about the banking system, for example, by virtue of the fact that he deposits in and draws checks against a bank. We do not believe, to cite another example, that very many people will gain an adequate comprehension of what the labor movement is, and what it is about, by occasionally reading in the newspapers of some strike or other industrial difficulty. The course called Contemporary Civilization is the way that we have worked out to acquaint students in college with the content and the meaning of the social institutions among which they live and operate.

In closing I should like to make clear that the course is the focus of constant criticism. The staff is steadily engaged in trying to find the weak spots in the work and to strengthen them. The opinions of students also are sought and some of their comments have been extremely helpful to our efforts to improve it. The members of the staff,

however, while they differ on particulars, agree in believing that the idea of the course is a sound one. And the members of each senior class to have graduated from college for many years have expressed their opinion by voting that Contemporary Civilization has been the most valuable course taken in college.

There are some critics of the course who oppose it categorically and on fundamental grounds. This group is composed chiefly of persons who are specialists in one field or another—most of whom have not tried very hard to find out what the course is. Their view may be called the circus-tent theory of the course—that it covers a great deal of ground and does not touch anything. A corollary to this view is that students are led, by an inadequate acquaintance with difficult subjects, to the belief that they know all about them.

This charge of superficiality would be a just one if we were to assume that students would not go on living, studying, and learning. So far as work in college goes, there are numerous technical and specialized courses, which may be taken by students after they have completed this two-year survey. The charge of superficiality does, however, raise for consideration one of the most serious aspects of the work in the course. That is the pedagogical aspect. If instructors permit students to believe that they have an understanding of matters they do not understand, they are guilty of bad educational work.

The great French historian, Fustel de Coulanges, had a motto that he impressed upon all of his students. The motto was *quaesto*. That, in a word, is the spirit of the course in Contemporary Civilization. We would like to inculcate in our students an interest in their heritage of culture and a spirit of inquiry toward that heritage. That, I grant, is lacking in finality. But it is the fate—perhaps I may say the glory—of the questing mind to go through life raising more questions than it can answer.

# Content for the Middle Grades

MARY G. KELTY

THE problem of content in the social-science curriculum for the middle grades is as perplexing as the problem of content for the junior and senior high schools. Neither has been solved satisfactorily. A solution of the former, however, is basic to a solution of the latter.

One reason why many of the programs that have been evolved up to date have been on the whole unsatisfactory is that they have begun at the wrong end. The upper-grade or high-school aspects have been attacked first; and a curriculum has been drawn up for them, sometimes complete even to syllabus, textbook, and all the other paraphernalia of modern instruction. Only then have the curriculum builders shifted their attention down the scale to the lower grades, where they have attempted to fit in a foundation for the upper-grade superstructure already in place. Such a method of attack puts the cart before the horse. What is needed is a progressive, cumulative plan,

beginning at the primary division and building securely at each level as broad and comprehensive a program as the capacities and interests of the children will allow. The middle-grade problem then resolves itself into the question of what types of experience middle-grade children are ready to understand and appreciate, now that they have their primary experiential background upon which to build. It is not a question of what experiences have been left out of the junior high-school plan that ought to be put in somewhere, or of how children can best be prepared for the junior high-school course.

## DIRECT EXPERIENCE IN PRIMARY YEARS

THE division of the curriculum that should be approached first is clearly the primary division. Fortunately, this department has already attacked its own problems, perhaps more successfully than has any other group. Courses of study, the literature of the subject, and practice over a wide area reflect striking similarities.

The primary-grade curriculum utilizes the only method of adjustment possible for little children, that is, direct experience. Consequently its subject matter is necessarily drawn from the resources of the immediate community. Its concern is to orient the child in the complex life of which he is a part, both intellectually and emotionally, as an individual and as a member of groups. Its great contribution to child growth, in terms of the social sciences, is the providing of direct experience with the overt aspects

History and social studies have been changing in the middle grades as well as elsewhere during the past generation. Miss Kelty, formerly supervisor of these fields and instructor in the teaching of history at the State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, recently the author of *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades*, describes and evaluates current practices.

of community institutions and the establishment of a favorable affective tone or emotional atmosphere. Some of the simpler community relationships, such as interdependence, can also be discerned by the child at the primary level, though not too much can reasonably be expected.

PRIMARY schools throughout the country seem to be achieving a reasonable degree of success toward attaining the objectives set forth above. At least, they are acutely conscious of the nature of their problem. They are still encountering difficulty in penetrating beneath the surface aspects of community institutions to the meanings involved. Their success, too, in helping children to get meaning from the printed page, through silent reading, leaves much to be desired. Nevertheless the investigator can not but feel that the basic problems of content at the primary-grade level are well on their way to solution.

#### CONFUSION IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

TEACHERS and curriculum workers at the middle-grade level, however, have failed to envision their problem so clearly. A variety of mutually exclusive alternatives confronts them, no one of which can present comforting evidence of superiority over the others. Nor has the psychology of developing an understanding of meanings or generalizations been advanced sufficiently to offer much guidance. In the absence of basic directing principles workers are prone to draft a curriculum in terms of their own preferences and then to proceed backwards to a rationalization of their program. Four plans can be differentiated, the continued use of direct experience, limitation of concern to present-day problems, following through certain "threads of interest," and organizing content into "subject units."

*Continued Use of Direct Experience.* One group of workers wishes to continue in the middle grades the same kind of curriculum as that being carried out so intelligently in

the primary grades. That is, they believe they must continue to rely almost entirely on the immediate environment as the source of curriculum content. The undoubted advantage of this plan of attack is that it relies upon direct experience for its validity. The problem of meaning is thereby simplified. Of particular value in this connection are the projects for community betterment, in which the children in the school and the adults of the community work together on such things as clean-up week, the problem of keeping the parks free of refuse, and safety provisions. Probably no other activities of the social sciences furnish so keen a realization of membership in the group or offer such satisfying forms of participation.

On the other hand the child has just finished three years of acquiring familiarity with his immediate environment. He is fairly well acquainted with its overt aspects; but he is not yet sufficiently mature to comprehend all the subtle, complicated interrelationships, nor does he possess a knowledge of other kinds of social institutions with which to contrast or compare his own. He seems to have gone about as far in this direction as he can go at the present stage in his development, aside from such occasional working with adults as has been noted above. To continue to limit his experiences entirely to what his own eyes can see, his own ears can hear, and his own hands can manipulate is seriously to limit his growth.

Moreover, by about the beginning of the fourth grade he has acquired a new means of obtaining mastery over the world—the ability to get meaning from the printed page. From now on, reading is his invaluable ally in high-grade living, and this ally should be utilized. Reading and direct experience supplement one another; neither can supplant the other. Together they advance the child's understanding of his world farther than either one can possibly do alone. To continue to rely only upon direct experience then, seems a mistaken policy.

*Present-Day Problems.* A second group of workers recognizes the necessity of pushing back the child's horizons to include the larger world in which he will play, and is already playing, his part. This group would limit his field of concern to present-day problems. Volumes have been written on the various aspects of this question, pointing out the ephemeral nature of many of the problems and the purely temporary expedients to which society is resorting as stopgap solutions. It has been shown that many of the puzzles of today will have become subjects of purely academic interest within a few years.

On the other hand, certain stubborn and persistent problems have come down to us from the past, and the study of social trends made by pioneer thinkers indicates that some of them will continue to confront the next generation. They surely are appropriate subjects for study in the schools.

Such long standing and complicated questions can, however, be comprehended only in the light of their historical development. This principle is currently accepted by most students, and the trend in curriculum construction today is distinctly away from the tendency to include only present-day aspects. Both past and present are being utilized as means of understanding this complicated world. Yet in thus reaching out beyond the child's immediate environment, direct experience must not be neglected. What a child reads about things he has never seen can be interpreted only in terms of things he has seen. Parallels or contrasts need constantly to be drawn between the new concepts and his own experience. His community may still serve as a laboratory and an observatory in showing the evolution of institutions, with their similarities and differences. The essential background of community understanding furnished by the primary-grade curriculum now becomes the essential medium in terms of which the more remote and complicated concepts of distant places and times can be comprehended. It is possible to make some use of

the past, but those who are convinced that a story of the past as well as a study of the present should be included in the middle-grade curriculum differ among themselves as to the forms in which the story of the past should be presented.

*Following Through Certain "Threads" of Interest.* One group favors organizing the story of man's adventure on the earth by tracing the evolution of certain basic institutions. These workers would follow through the development of farming, architecture, communication, transportation, banking, time-telling, weights and measures, road and bridge-making and the like. The values of such materials are evident. They are human institutions of basic importance. They are much more significant than the discussions of dynastic successions and petty wars in which the history courses of the early nineteen hundreds abounded. Any curriculum in social science which does not contain them should straightway be reorganized to allow for their inclusion.

Yet to agree that such materials constitute an important element of the content of the social-science curriculum does not imply that they should be studied in isolation as separate threads of interest. Many serious objections must be raised against such an arrangement.

The first and most serious of these is that the plan provides no background of understanding in either place or time against which to project the evolution of a specific institution. For example, the history of farming proposed as a "thread" begins with farming among the ancient Egyptians. The children have had no study of geography; they have no concepts in terms of which to understand the peculiar geographic conditions determining the kind of farming which resulted in Egypt. They have had no history; therefore they know nothing about the arrangement of social classes which dictated the labor system. An attempt is made to supply such deficiencies, but the time available is completely inadequate, for this topic goes on to include farming among

the Greeks and Romans, the people of the middle ages, the American colonists, the pioneers in the later West, and in the world of today.

The hurried attempt to supply such basic understandings in totally insufficient time leads almost inevitably to verbalism. The time required for the valid development of generalizations is lacking; they are more likely to be stated or at least suggested by the teacher. Then, unfortunately, both children and teacher are apt to be misled into thinking that the generalizations are real, and that they represent bona fide thinking on the part of the children. Moreover farming in the middle ages, which necessarily includes the institution of serfdom, can not possibly be understood without a general understanding of the feudal system. But to provide such an understanding takes almost as much time as is devoted to the entire study of farming in the plan under consideration. Similar difficulties in providing backgrounds for understanding are met at every step. They illustrate strikingly, through the breach rather than the observance, the highly important desirability of giving a broad general view of the whole before attempting any analytical examination of the parts. Naturally, this criticism would not apply if children had previously been given a general view of the earth as the home of man and of man's adventure on it—in other words, a general notion of the geography of the world and of its history.

A second objection to the plan of following certain threads of interest is that drawing the single thread of an institution out of the "seamless web" of which it is part makes relational thinking all but impossible. The child can see the vertical connections (if any) between one step in the development of this topic and the next step, but why a given institution developed among a given people or how it was related to their life in general is completely hidden from him.

The historian maintains that the institutions of a people represent the genius of

that people, and that the only way to understand them is to view the life of the people as broadly as possible, through their history, their geography, their economic system, their literature, their systems of thought.

The "thread" plan of institutional development makes such an approach to understanding impossible. In attempting to achieve integration of meanings it only achieves a new kind of isolation. It isolates vertically, as the last century type of history teaching used to isolate horizontally. It is repeating the mistakes of the topical method. For example, in following through a great many of the "threads" of institutional development, the pupil beginning a study of social science finds that a people called the Greeks made astounding advances. Under the conditions given, he can not possibly understand why this should be so; he must perforce content himself with a more or less bald statement of the facts; and he can not even be encouraged to question the reasons very far. Relational thinking suffers accordingly. Similarly, in studying the history of road-making, the pupil finds that the Persians and later the Romans made great strides. The teacher tells him that roads were needed to keep the empire together, and to the best of her ability attempts to help him understand this generalization. Yet any real comprehension involves a study of what the Roman Empire was, how it grew, and how it was administered; and there is not time to build any such comprehensive background as incidental to the study of road-making. Again it should be repeated that this criticism would not hold in the case of children who have been "over the general ground" once and who consequently have a broad view of geography and world history against which to project this picture of disparate institutions.

A final difficulty in organizing social-science courses on the principle of "threads" is the lack of relationship between one subject chosen for study and the next subject, topic, thread, or "unit." Aside from the fact

that they are all human institutions, there is little connection between one and the next. There is little coherence or cumulativeness or evolutionary process evident between units. Pupil growth is consequently impaired.

*Organizing Content into "Subject-Units."* Mighty battles have been waged, and their echoes still reverberate, over the issue of drawing relevant materials from any sources where they may be found. Certain of the schools of thought assume that they originated the idea in recent years, whereas it can be traced back in our own day to James Harvey Robinson's *New History* in 1912 and in earlier generations to the later middle ages. An examination of courses of study, textbooks, and periodical literature published since 1930 shows that the practice of drawing materials from all sources is characteristic not only of the schools which call themselves "activity schools," but also of the trends characterized above as "threads" and of others which may be called "subject-units." "Water-tight compartments" no longer exist under any of those plans; and diatribes against such rigid compartmentalization are directed against a dead issue. Likewise "activities" are utilized equally in the various programs. Even the "themes" to which modern courses of study point with pride are only points of view, which develop naturally and inevitably from the best modern instruction along any of the lines enumerated above.

There is, however, one decided difference which marks off content as organized into "activities" or "threads" from what may be called "subject-units." That difference lies in the principle according to which one unit follows another. As has been shown, the "units" in the first two plans follow one another on the basis of temporary pupil-interest or arbitrary selection. "Subject-units," on the other hand, follow the line of development of great forces or movements in history or the significant aspects of certain sciences. The core-topic of

each one may be, for example, a movement in history, but it is not limited to the basic political and military elements, which are all that certain critics think of when they use the term "history." These elements can not be disregarded any more than the geographic or the economic, the social, the literary, or the anthropological elements can be disregarded. All are needed to obtain a well rounded view of our civilization. From the whole range are selected those movements of fundamental and permanent importance, which can be comprehended by children in the grades for which the units are intended. Such units rigidly exclude much of the unimportant detail considered essential by earlier textbooks and strive for better balance between the general cultural elements, the geographic and economic elements, and the military and political elements, having due regard also to the influence of great leaders along many lines.

The "threads" of all kinds of institutional development have thus been included within the limits of these "subject-units," conserving the values of units, and avoiding their shortcomings in regard to relational thinking.

If separate units are organized in the fields of history and geography, those in history follow the general time order of human development, which is very different from the old-time strictly chronological arrangement of all the events in a given year, presidential administration, reign, era, or epoch. Units in geography usually follow the general pattern of complexity. If "subject-units" from history and geography are combined, there still remains the necessity of following an order which develops a strong sense of time and change from past to present and which projects trends forward into the future. Sometimes "subject-units" are alternated, those of a geographic core following those of an historical core.

These "subject-units" logically follow and are dependent for their validity upon the work of the primary grades which has pre-

ceded them. Thereby, the child has been made acquainted with the overt aspects of his immediate community; but, as has been shown, he is not yet sufficiently mature to grasp the subtle interrelationships. Before he can more fully understand his own environment he needs to know the characteristics of other environments. He must be able to compare and contrast. He needs to learn the origin and development of many of the problems by which his own society is confronted. In short, he needs a general understanding of the earth and man as influencing one another (geography or the world of space) and of man's great adventure upon the earth (history or the world of time). The study of his local community in the primary grades has supplied the experience in terms of which he can understand these other problems; and his immediate environment still serves as a laboratory and an observatory in which he may constantly compare and contrast the remote and strange with the near and familiar, or the past with the present. Present-day developments can constantly reinforce this study, so far as he is able to comprehend them. With such an equipment of experiences and points of view developed by the middle grades, the child is ready in the upper grades or junior high school to return once more to the problems of his own community with a deepened understanding.

#### PROBLEM OF REPETITION

**W**HILE the general principles enumerated above are subscribed to by workers who favor "subject-units" as opposed to "threads" or the temporary interests which constituted the old-time activities, nevertheless, many problems connected with those principles still await experimental verification. For example, can the best results be obtained by paralleling "subject-units" in history and geography? Should they be alternated, or should they be combined? If combined, what kind of thread should provide the vertical continuity? If the order of evolution in time be followed,

should the evolution be that of the national culture, that of society as a whole, or both? If both, in what order? Owing to the comprehensive nature of these problems experimental attack upon them has been slow. The necessary techniques are known, but resources have been lacking.

The problem of repetition in curriculum content from the middle grades to the upper grades or junior high school has long been recognized as serious. The social-science field in which repetition has been most marked has been American history. That something must be done to solve this problem is apparent. The solution, however, must be made the subject of careful study; it can not be arrived at by personal opinion.

#### AMERICAN HISTORY

**S**OME administrators, acquainted primarily with the field of secondary education, have viewed the question chiefly with reference to the convenience of upper-grade teachers. Their recommendation in regard to the matter of repetition has been that American history be eliminated from the elementary school (grades 1-6), thus leaving a free hand for the upper grades.

This summary disposal seems an oversimplification of a complex problem. Whatever arrangement is decided upon should be directed entirely by the values for child growth which the plan involves. Saving upper-grade teachers from the unpleasant necessity of reorganizing their courses with reference to children's previous experiences and knowledge is not the criterion which should be employed. Valid criteria are rather such questions as: At what age can children comprehend and appreciate the general narrative of American history? What values are inherent in approaching the subject at a higher level from an entirely different point of view from that of mere narrative? Can all the advantages of consideration on both levels be obtained by postponing the subject until the later grades? Is it true that a single viewing of such a complicated and important matter

as the national history will yield all the values involved, and that the child need never again approach it from any angle? Should the curriculum for middle-grade children be determined by consideration of their own interests and capacities, or should it be regarded primarily as preparation for certain courses reserved for the upper grades?

The following considerations bear on the proposal to solve the question of repetition by entirely eliminating American history from the middle grades.

(1) It is evident that the problem of repetition of material does not become a complicating factor until the material is approached a second time, that is, at the upper-grade or junior high-school level. If the first view in the middle grades has been valuable and satisfying, the burden of avoiding repetition clearly falls upon the secondary school.

(2) Proponents of the elimination of American history in the middle grades have not brought forth evidence to prove that middle-grade children are unable to comprehend the narrative of those phases which are chosen for presentation to them, nor that they are uninterested in such narrative. On the other hand, the experience of thousands of schools all over the country, which have introduced the modern materials of the "new history," has been that middle-grade pupils are keenly interested and that they are achieving satisfactory growth through this instrument.

(3) Long before junior high-school age, children have become curious about the history of their own country. They have begun to ask questions about it. They have seen and heard of it in picture sections of the newspapers, the motion picture newsreels, holiday celebrations, and radio programs. Their recreational reading has been largely drawn from this field. Therefore it is close to their interests and experiences—closer, it would seem, than the institutional "threads" mentioned above. And the opportunities for the tie-up of textbook ma-

terial with children's every-day living are legion.

(4) All the studies of middle-grade children's interests have placed interest in action and in adventure high on the list. Nowhere in the whole range of factual materials can topics be found superior in these respects to the narrative of American history, opening as it does with stirring adventures at sea, including the discovering and exploring of the continent, proceeding to the adapting of men's ways of living to the new environment and the westward movement. In comparison, the "threads of institutional development" seem colorless, heavy, and academic.

(5) A coherent cumulative treatment of American history with emphasis on training in sequential thinking has an important contribution to make to the mastery of the reading process. The wealth of attractive materials available at all levels makes a wide reading program practicable. In time, materials equally rich and appealing may be provided for the other types of programs mentioned above; but that they are scanty and scattered at present can be testified to by any curriculum worker who has attempted to assemble them.

In conclusion, this discussion should not be interpreted as a defense of the sanctity of any specific courses of study or textbooks in American history for the middle grades as they appear at present. Many further improvements should be made in all of them. Doubtless much should still be eliminated, and even more certainly other types of materials should be included. But the "subject-unit" plan of organization seems capable of including from the activity program the values of direct experience and pupil interest, and from the "threads of institutional development" their basic and fundamental contributions, without the disintegrating effect of unrelated units or the isolation of separate topics. As much work needs to be done in one case as in the others, but work along lines clearly defined by the guiding principles discussed above.

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# The Literature of Politics, 1935 and 1936

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

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## CURRENT TRENDS

THE impact of events, national and international, during the past two years has impregnated interest and analysis in the literature of politics, as in the other social sciences. The development of the New Deal in the United States, the evolution of National Socialism in Germany, the progress of the Russian system, the reappraisals of democratic theory and practice in Great Britain and other countries, have influenced the direction of interest, and inspired more searching analysis. Rapidity of change in the practices and principles of competing ideologies of political organization has stimulated contemporary description and appraisal. National, state, and local governments, in their relations to each other and as agencies of program-making and control, have received fresh impetus to reorganization of structure and function.

Within these broader outlines of instability in governmental theories, procedures, and structures, several more permanent influences are emerging. Perhaps the most significant is the increasing attention being given to planning. The second "five-year plan" is in its fourth year in Russia; a "four-year plan" is announced—and acclaimed—

in Germany; various party groups in Belgium, France, and Great Britain have published more or less detailed programs. In Great Britain the depression created, and the government has undertaken the solution of, grave problems, social, economic, and political, in "special areas" where unemployment and industrial stagnation have been most acute.

In the United States under the stimulus of the Roosevelt administration the national resources committee has been engaged in blueprinting our economic and administrative prospects and programs. On the one hand it has charted frontiers and contours of national planning within the framework of the existing order, and, on the other, it has energized and aided state and local planning agencies in their efforts to apply the blueprints within their regions and powers. A number of other national agencies, notably the agriculture, interior, and war departments, have undertaken various types of planning in more restricted aspects of national problems. Finally, administrative reorganization has again become a major factor in national and state activity.

NOT less significant is the increasing attention being given to the theory and practice of administration.<sup>1</sup> Its political aspects have probably been most thoroughly exploited in Germany under the NSDAP, where adherence to party tenets is made the chief criterion of availability and com-

The present absorbing interest in politics and the Constitution makes peculiarly timely this issue's review article by a professor of political science at Amherst College.

<sup>1</sup> See P. Bradley, "Administration, the Fourth Power of Government," *Social Studies*, May, 1936.

petence. The opposite tendency is evident in the differing political régimes of Russia and the United States. In the former emphasis is laid on acceptance of the political principles of a one-party state—witness the recent “treason” trial. But within that ambit administrative ability is rewarded; it is interesting to note that the chief planner of Russia under the Gosplan is a Greek Orthodox priest who remains a devout adherent of the church. In the latter no problem has received more discussion or analysis, and no governmental policy is more widely debated, than the improvement of our civil service. Training for and in the public service, its recruitment, organization, and status, the extension of the principles of competence and experience to selection for and promotion within the expanding services of nation, state, and city, are receiving wide unofficial scrutiny and official attention.

Inquiry is being pushed to the “frontiers of administration”; its concepts and principles are being subjected to searching review, as the areas of specific activity include new governmental services. The present is not unlike the period of its initial development in this country, sixty-odd years ago, in the energy and intensity of observation, appraisal, and experiment. A new factor is, however, playing an important part in the vitalization of public business. The civil service is today an organized and self-conscious body. Public officials are participating, to a degree hitherto unknown, in the development of principle and stabilization of practice. The rapid increase in the variety of organizations in which they participate, and in the activities in which they concern themselves, is a notable development of the present period of administrative evolution, clearly evident in the new agencies in the field and in the growing body of materials by and upon the public service.

An interesting, and not unimportant, phenomenon of the past two years, especially in the United States, is the noteworthy

improvement in the form and appearance of government publications. The regular reports of many departments have become more attractive and readable and, in many of the new services of the national government, reporting has reached a high standard of interest and effectiveness. Illustrations, charts, and diagrams have been widely used to interpret data and activities. There is, in fact, a growing body of government “literature” of first-rate classroom utility.

In the field of international law and relations, wars and rumors of war have agitated opinion and infected the literature in every country. The two outstanding “incidents” of the past two years have been the Italo-Ethiopian struggle, with its repercussions in the effort to apply sanctions, and the war—hardly civil—in Spain. Each has induced a considerable amount of analysis and appraisal. In the review of problems in the general field, conflicting interests are increasingly reflected in the books which appear in different countries. The dogmas of the “haves” and the “havenots” as to the proper organization and functions of the international community are hardening into inelastic lines. Divergent programs confront each other in the area of opinion as acrimoniously as in the field of policy, where the coup d'état has become the accepted technique of diplomacy on the part of dictatorships.

Here again, however, certain elements of a more permanent character are emerging. The field of general international relations is being subjected to more thorough examination in an effort to expose the “pivots of diplomacy” and to relate them to the foreign policies pursued by various governments as well as to the attitudes of peoples and the objectives of various interest groups within the different countries. If agreement has not been reached, at least consensus as to the basic factors which require understanding—and consideration—in the framing of foreign policy is being approached.

In the United States two of these factors have become increasingly apparent. The effort to eliminate war is being recognized as dependent in large measure upon a restoration of international trade and financial relations. Flexibility commensurate with the integration of a common life imposed by modern communications and a culture based on a world economy is reflected in the reciprocal trade policy of the Roosevelt administration and in the other analyses of the experts. Economic nationalism as the vehicle of political objectives in foreign policy has never been a paramount consideration here, as it has been in certain other countries. Its ultimate effects in driving nations toward war are, however, more clearly envisaged and more actively appraised as its repercussions upon American foreign policy become apparent.

Fear of war remains the scourge of domestic economy as of international peace. Its incidence upon this country during the past two decades has stimulated efforts to insure our non-participation in future wars outside this hemisphere. The question of our ability to maintain neutrality—and our interest in doing so—has become a dominant issue in and out of Congress. The "new neutrality" has been debated in Washington and on the hustings, and generated an extensive literature invaluable as the basis for the formation of public opinion. "Isolation" and "collective security" remain the thesis and antithesis out of which synthesis remains to be forged.

Another—perhaps the most important—trend in the literature of politics is its growing integration with the whole social-science field. Psychology, sociology, economics, and political science are increasingly recognized as strands in the single pattern of a Great Society. Classifications are breaking down, exploration is pushing beyond the boundaries of the separate disciplines. During the past two years the appearance of two new journals, the *Journal of Social Philosophy* and the *Public Opinion Quarterly*, symbolizes this influence which permeates the

present thinking in all the social sciences.

This brief review of current trends in the literature of politics suggests the vitality which pervades the field; that vitality is no doubt enhanced by the impact of events, but it is reflected in more critical and detailed examination of the forces underlying action and of the institutions which those forces animate. These trends of description and analysis may be outlined by tracing certain threads which divide the whole pattern of politics: the American scene in terms of politics, government, administration, and law; foreign politics and government; international law and relations; and political theory.

#### THE AMERICAN SCENE

**POLITICS**—the art of directing "who gets what, when, how"—reaches high pressure once every four years in the presidential elections; but the business of stoking the political machine is a year-round activity. How it is done, and why, emerges from the mysterious as new approaches to the political process supplant the older, more formal descriptions of parties, campaigns, and elections. Two are of particular interest, the study of the techniques of propaganda and the biographical analysis of successful politicians.

As to the first, Harold D. Lasswell's exploration of the "psychopathology" of politics has led him into new and interesting areas of politics. In *Politics: Who Gets What, When, How*<sup>2</sup> he attempts a general description of methods of gaining and keeping political power by the élite through the exploitation of "symbols, violence, goods, and practices." Suggestive rather than definitive, it provides useful insights into the psychology of control of the led by the leaders. Professor Lasswell utilizes language that must often be translated into

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\* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936; see also, for a valuable source book, *Propaganda and Promotional Activities: An Annotated Bibliography*, ed. by H. D. Lasswell, R. D. Casey, and B. L. Smith. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1935.

the vernacular of everyday life; its usefulness is for the teacher rather than the student.

More directly applicable to the contemporary American situation is a highly readable little volume by S. McKee Rosen<sup>3</sup> which deals with the habits and practices of the press, business groups, labor, the farmers in getting what they want from governments. The formation of what is mis-called "public opinion" turns out in fact to be little more than a manipulation of the various devices of persuasion, which the advertisers discover, and the various pressure groups exploit. Dr Rosen has assembled a nice array of current illustrations of how it is done—and what the results have been. His descriptions of the major organized propaganda agencies operating in national and state politics, while not original, are a useful antidote to civic indifference to politics behind the scenes.<sup>4</sup>

By all odds the best general study of propaganda to date is that by Leonard W. Doob.<sup>5</sup> Starting from the background of social psychology he explores "empirically" the psychology of living people, the nature of propaganda, the sweep of propaganda (the variety and practices of pressure groups), and the vehicles of propaganda (press, rumor, etc.). He relates, with conspicuous success, "the dynamic mechanisms underlying human behavior [to] the social environment which influences people so markedly." It is this relativity of propaganda techniques to the conditioning which the community imposes unconsciously on the individual, generally neglected by the analysts, which makes this so refreshingly

pertinent a guide to self-awareness. The author attempts, on the basis of his empirical (and incisive) description of propaganda techniques, to draw up a set of eight "principles" which appear to him to embrace the processes of persuasion. It would be a fascinating classroom project to test current propagandas in their terms. Somewhat abstractly stated, they offer, nevertheless, useful hints for the dissection of the unconscious acceptances we all make of the artful pleas of pressure groups.

Perhaps the most revealing study of pressure groups in action—certainly since Peter H. Odegard's *Pressure Politics* (New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1928)—is E. E. Schattschneider's *Politics, Pressures and the Tariff*.<sup>6</sup> The author has turned a high-power microscope on the making of the Hawley-Smoot tariff of 1930 as revealed in the official documents. With a relentless scalpel he has exposed the inner workings of the tariff lobbyists in their predatory, but often successful, attempts to write favorable schedules into the bill. Nothing has escaped his attention, from the origin, organization, and resources of the interested lobbies to their undercover manipulations of opinion within and without Congress.

As he puts it briefly: "Capitalism is a power relation including dominant and subordinate elements in which some interests are the vassals of others. Pressure politics expresses economic authority as well as interest. In the business world opinions are communicated from the higher levels to the lower, but rarely in the other direction. Influence is the possession of those who have established their supremacy in the invisible empires outside of what is ordinarily known as government. From this point of view the function of pressure politics is to reconcile formal political democracy and economic autocracy. If the overlords of business are not masters of the state, they seem at least to negotiate with it as equals."

<sup>3</sup> *Political Process*. New York: Harper, 1935.

<sup>4</sup> See also for significant descriptions and appraisals, H. L. Childs, ed., "Pressure Groups and Propaganda," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (cited hereafter as *Annals*), May, 1935; for other discussions of pressure groups, see the books by H. L. Childs, E. P. Herring, O. W. Riegel, and E. E. Schattschneider noted below.

<sup>5</sup> *Propaganda: Its Psychology and Technique*. New York: Holt, 1935; see also W. Irwin, *Propaganda and the News*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936, reviewed in *Social Education*, January, 1937.

<sup>6</sup> New York: Prentice-Hall, 1935; see also D. L. Cohn, *Picking America's Pockets*. New York: Harper, 1936.

His study is a revelation of the forces underlying the framing of policy in a significant field of governmental action. But it is more than that, for it provides a suggestive prototype of the sort of analysis which may be applied by student and teacher to the habits and activities of pressure groups in many other fields.

Pressures in state and local politics are not less persistent or ingenious than in the national field. Since the days of the "muckrakers" no detailed studies of the way lobbies function in state legislatures have been made; even their significant exposures were of the product rather than of the process. Belle Zeller's *Pressure Politics in New York*<sup>7</sup> provides the first full-length portrait of the lobby in action at a state capital. Not content with formal accounts and written records, she has probed to the sources—the interest groups which exert pressure, as labor, business interests, farmers, professions, welfare groups, etc.—and to their agents on Capitol Hill who plan (or plot) the propaganda campaign for and against the measures that pass through the legislative hopper. Based upon first-hand and patient observations of the day-to-day habits of the solons, "legislative agents," and citizens, her study is a unique contribution to an understanding of how and why the statute book is made. It is as pertinent as it is admonitory for every state in the country—an indispensable guide to realism about government in action.

A second approach to an understanding of politics is through the politician. Whether or not man is a political animal, as Aristotle thought, there are a good many men and women who act as "brokers" of governmental action to the common people. It is a cliché of the respectable that they do it for a price, namely votes on election day. But brokerage in any field is essentially barter, and political power is no less a legitimate prize to be won by effective brokerage than those in other fields. How the game

is played, or the spoils collected, has usually been portrayed by unsympathetic observers impatient with the application of the rules they use in other fields to the public business. Only recently have attempts been made to understand appreciatively the brokers themselves, in their own environment. Two significant contributions to that understanding have appeared in the past two years. John Thomas Salter's *Boss Rule*<sup>8</sup> is a study of nine district leaders in the Philadelphia Vare machine. The author lived, ate, drank with, and observed these lieutenants of politics in an effort to get at why they were effective in delivering the votes on election day. They range all the way from Tony Nicollo, the likeable, self-sacrificing Italian leader of a district that contains all the colors of the kaleidoscope, to Harry Rothschild and George Kendall, university graduates and "gentlemen" who lived more remotely from their constituents but served them not less devotedly in the everyday problems of their domestic life and entanglements with "the law." It is a pioneer study in sympathetic appraisal of the springs of political power, as readable as it is incisive. And beside these portraits, Professor Salter has examined the debacle of the Vare machine in the elections of 1934 and suggested some of the questions which must be resolved, if politics is to become something more than a contest for spoils. Here is a book that every high-school student can and should read, and to which many will be able to bring rich stores of personal analogy and insight.

More formal, but not less significant, is Harold F. Gosnell's *Negro Politicians*.<sup>9</sup> It is the story of "the rise of the Negro" in Chicago, to which scores of thousands migrated during and after the Great War, to form a solid bloc of votes ripe for organization—and exploitation. In politics self-help means, because "the rich, the able, and the well-born" have decreed (or neglected) it

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<sup>7</sup> New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937.

<sup>8</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935.

<sup>9</sup> Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1935.

so, the political machine. The author traces the emergence of leaders who have acquired political power reaching from the lowest paid city job to Congress. How the drive for power changed the traditional Republicanism of the Negro, how a machine emerged to recognition and influence, how the underworld at first exploited the Negro areas and then fell in part under their sway, how the Negroes achieved both important elective office and a recognized status in the allocation of appointive positions, is here portrayed with insight and a wide knowledge of local politics in Chicago. It is the first comprehensive study of the political life of a minority group in an urban setting—the setting in which we have relegated our minority groups to oblivion, unless they survive by self-help.<sup>10</sup>

A series of essays, *The American Political Scene*, edited by Edward B. Logan,<sup>11</sup> provides a stimulating and realistic description of the political process by half a dozen authors, each an expert in the intricacies of political party programs and organization, the politician and the voter, presidential campaigns, the use of money in elections, and pressure groups and propaganda techniques in American politics. It is undoubtedly the best single source for a perspective on how parties operate in this country. More generalized in approach and treatment than the other volumes noted, the authors do not hesitate to look behind the scenes or to explore the byways of the machine in action.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>10</sup> There are many shrewd and pertinent insights into the process described by Salter and Gosnell in Governor Alfred E. Smith's *The Citizen and His Government*. New York: Harper, 1935; political biographies and autobiographies also offer many useful sidelights on politics in terms of personality, as, for instance, J. C. Miller, *Sam Adams, Pioneer in Propaganda*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1936; A. Nevins, *Hamilton Fish*. New York: Dodd, 1936.

<sup>11</sup> New York: Harper, 1936.

<sup>12</sup> See also various books noted below under political theory; for an account of the conduct of a presidential campaign see R. V. Peel and T. C. Donnelly, *The 1932 Campaign*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1935.

**G**OVERNMENT. American government has undergone rapid change during the past two years. At the national level, imposed by the crisis of depression, these changes have been in part frustrated by the Supreme Court, in part achieved by indirection, in part still "in being" and not yet implemented by institutional devices or constitutional adaptation. Aside from the formal texts on American government, several of which have been re-edited,<sup>13</sup> only two studies of any importance have appeared. Arthur Norman Holcombe's *Government in a Planned Democracy*<sup>14</sup> is a brief for the New Deal approach to problems of control. Professor Holcombe argues for the professionalization of business and of government, a new attitude in industry and a trained personnel to administer the inevitably increasing powers and procedures of industrial, financial, and social regulation. Broader in scope but a good deal less successful in treatment is William Y. Elliott's *Need for Constitutional Reform*.<sup>15</sup> He attempts to cover the economic basis of politics as outlined in the New Deal program and the institutional changes implicit in its execution. He pays particular attention to the function of the Supreme Court and the need for revision of administrative areas; instead of forty-eight states he advocates nine or ten "regional commonwealths." On the whole, the volume lacks precision or integration; the author has tilled a fertile field for analysis so extensively that his criticisms and appraisals do

<sup>13</sup> C. A. Beard, *American Government and Politics*. 7th ed. New York: Macmillan, 1935; C. C. Maxey, *American Problems of Government*, rev. ed. New York: Crofts, 1936; W. B. Munro, *The Government of the United States*. 4th ed. New York: Macmillan, 1936; F. A. Ogg and P. O. Ray, *Introduction to American Government*. 5th ed. New York: Appleton-Century, 1935; same, *Essentials of American Government*. 2nd ed. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936; see also C. A. Beard and G. H. Smith, *Current Problems of Public Policy*. New York: Macmillan, 1936, for a highly useful collection of documents concerning New Deal problems.

<sup>14</sup> New York: Norton, 1935.

<sup>15</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935.

not reach the subsoil of economic or political realities.

There are several valuable studies of a more specialized interest. Of these the most significant is Joseph P. Chamberlain's *Legislative Processes: National and State*.<sup>16</sup> After several introductory chapters dealing with the statute-making in general, the election of members, and the organization of legislative bodies, Professor Chamberlain proceeds to describe and appraise the "selection of bills for submission" and the actual process of getting the bills that are selected through the various stages of procedure. Other chapters deal with special aspects of the legislative process; financial legislation, "aids to legislators" (such as reference libraries, bill-drafting agencies), courts and legislation, the party and legislation, and law-making and foreign affairs. There is much useful illustrative material throughout, and in the appendixes. The author treats of the legislative process in Congress and in the state legislatures simultaneously and brings out many interesting contrasts and comparisons. The dean of American authorities on legislature, he offers many shrewd appraisals but few of his own opinions as to the direction of reform and improvement of what is still the vital core of the democratic system. His study is the most thorough, as it is the most impartial, analysis of our legislative system.

Several volumes deal in the informalia of national politics. Ernest Sutherland Bates, who has broken all records as an assiduous compiler, has written a brief *Story of Congress*.<sup>17</sup> Essentially a record of the major legislation passed by successive sessions of Congress since 1789, with thumbnail sketches of some of the leading protagonists in the great debates and in the perennial struggles between Congress and the President, it contains some anecdotal reminders but no important political or institutional insights. An informative and adequate history of Congress as a legislative

<sup>16</sup> New York: Appleton-Century, 1936.

<sup>17</sup> New York: Harper, 1936.

body remains to be written. More pertinent is Charles Gates Dawes' *Notes as Vice-President*.<sup>18</sup> Already established as the Pepys of contemporary American politics by his *First Year of the Budget of the United States* (New York: Harper, 1923), as director of the budget he had been able to exercise all his energetic and colorful qualities in the establishment of an effective national budget system. When "kicked upstairs" to the vice-presidency, he found the atmosphere of the Senate irksome. There are few reminiscences of Vice-Presidents available; and this diary is as revealing as it is disarming. The impotence of a strong man in a weak office, "the fifth wheel" of the national government, is portrayed with unconscious irony.<sup>19</sup>

The variety and utility of government publications for classroom and reference use is an almost untapped resource—largely owing to the very multiplicity of the available materials. Several "guides" have appeared; most are out of date or too complex for general usefulness. Laurence F. Schmeckebier's *Government Publications and Their Use*<sup>20</sup> can indisputably be noted as indispensable for any school or college library where such materials are used, or for any teacher who wishes to tap this rich vein of illustrative literature. The author reviews each type and source of material and indicates how and where to find it. Carefully indexed, it is a first-rate source book in itself for a study of the activities and functions of the national government.

Mention has already been made of the increasing effectiveness of government publications and reports as interpreters of what government is doing and why. At the national level this is particularly noticeable. The annual and special reports of such agencies as the resettlement and the relief administrations, the TVA, the national re-

<sup>18</sup> Boston: Little Brown, 1935.

<sup>19</sup> An account of senatorial life in a similar vein is Senator James E. Watson's *As I Knew Them*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1936.

<sup>20</sup> Washington: Brookings Institution, 1936.

sources board, and even such an old line bureau as the children's, as well as others, are furnishing the student of government invaluable data and illustrated materials for an understanding of newer activities as well as of traditional functions. In many instances they offer a basis for a reappraisal of concepts in the light of the actual problems government is called upon to attack.<sup>21</sup>

**S**TATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT has, with one exception, received little critical attention outside the texts.<sup>22</sup> The history and organization of the Nebraska experiment in unicameralism has been described in J. P. Senning's *The One-House Legislature*.<sup>23</sup> By all odds the most interesting experiment in state government in well over a century, this informative account of its achievement in a single state is of first-rate importance not only as a background for appraising the experiment which went into operation in Nebraska last January, but as the basis for classroom an-

alysis of the legislative process in our states.

Whatever the extent of the literature, activity in state and local government has been accelerated by the depression. Problems of interstate and federal-state-local relationships have been thrown into sharper perspective. Perhaps the most interesting development is the growth of unofficial contacts between state and federal officials, stimulated and directed by the council of state governments and the various agencies set up to deal with such matters as taxation, planning, and interstate traffic.<sup>24</sup> And a new area of co-operation is emerging in the increasing variety of direct contacts between the national government and the cities principally as a result of the financial crisis of 1932-33. The national conference of mayors has become, if not a lobby, a recognized and respected pressure group at Washington. The variety and extent of the relationships are summarized in Paul V. Betters' *Recent Federal-City Relations*.<sup>25</sup> Every city high-school student can footnote the author's outline from the records of local federal contacts—and contracts. In no field is the changing balance of powers in our system of government more evident or vital.

**A**DMINISTRATION. In an era of expanding governmental activity, administration is the fulcrum of policy. Unless it is effective in translating it into action, policy, no matter how well conceived, will remain stillborn. Two aspects of the problem emerge into sharper contours as problems become more complex. On the one hand, efficient selection and organization of personnel and the agencies they operate is often decisive of the results obtained. On

<sup>21</sup> See, for instance, the first *Annual Report of the Resettlement Administration*. Washington, 1936; *Little Waters*. Washington: Resettlement Administration, 1935; but there are many other invaluable reports which cut across many fields of interest—housing, social planning, and many of the natural sciences such as soil conservation, agronomy, flood control. At the state and local levels less attention has been paid to public reporting. There are, however, many state reports, special and annual, of first-rate classroom utility; and some of the more progressive cities publish excellent interpretations of their activities—see, for instance, Berkeley, California, Cincinnati, Ohio, Trenton, New Jersey. See also P. Bradley, *Making Municipal Reports Readable*. Concord, New Hampshire: New Hampshire Foundation, 1935, reprinted with additions, Trenton: New Jersey Taxpayers Association, 1936.

<sup>22</sup> A. W. Bromage, *State Government and Administration in the United States*. New York: Harper, 1936; W. S. Carpenter and P. T. Stafford, *State and Local Government in the United States*. New York: Crofts, 1936; W. B. Graves, *American State Government*. New York: Heath, 1936; J. M. Mathews, *American State Government*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century, 1934.

<sup>23</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1937. See also A. E. Buck, *Modernizing Our State Legislatures*. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1936. More generally, see C. N. Callender, ed., "The State Constitution of the Future," *Annals*, September, 1935.

<sup>24</sup> The organizations and activities are described in *The Book of the States*. Chicago: Council of State Governments, first annual volume, 1935. There are now over ten national organizations of state and local government officials centralized there, with close working relationships. For a single state see J. A. Burdine, *National State Cooperation with Special Reference to Texas*. Dallas: Southern Methodist Univ., 1935.

<sup>25</sup> Washington: U. S. Conference of Mayors, 1936. An annual supplement is to be made available.

the other, relationships between administration and the other elements in a Great Society, the citizens, the legislature, the executive, the courts, become more intricate and subtle.

In the first area, the outstanding contribution to clarification of national organization is the report of the *President's Committee on Administrative Management*.<sup>26</sup> It deals with the major organizational problems at Washington—personnel management, fiscal management, planning management, administrative reorganization, and accountability of the executive to Congress. The concluding words of the report define the issues underlying them all. "Honesty and courage alone are not enough for victory, either in peace or in war. Intelligence, vision, fairness, firmness, and flexibility are required in an assembled, competent, strong organization of democracy.... A weak administration can neither advance nor retreat successfully—it can merely muddle.... Strong executive leadership is essential to democratic government today. Our choice is not between power and no power, but between responsible but capable popular government and irresponsible autocracy. The forward march of American democracy at this point of our history depends more upon effective management than upon any other single factor."

The detailed recommendations of the committee will be the subject of controversy in and out of Congress; the broad outlines projected by it will remain the substantial framework of administrative improvement toward which the nation will move in the present period of growing awareness of the issue between democracy and dictatorship. No single public document is more worth the attention of teacher and student—for the relevance of the subject, and for the clarity of its presentation.

Cutting across the two aspects of administration, Edward P. Herring, in his *Public*

<sup>26</sup> Washington: National Emergency Council, 1937.

*Administration and the Public Interest*,<sup>27</sup> has explored the forces at work deflecting the administration of law to the advantage of many special rather than of the general interest. "Politics" impinges less sensationalistically, perhaps, but not less continuously or persistently on the interpretation and application than on the framing of policy. What pressures are applied, and how, to the various departments of the national government serving or controlling particular groups—the treasury, state department, tariff and federal trade commissions, and nearly a dozen others—are here presented in a pioneer description and appraisal of the interest groups concerned, and of their tactics. From his penetrating and detailed examination of the evidence, the author draws important conclusions as to the need for closer integration between the various government agencies and a more intimate collaboration among responsible officials. Written before the report noted above, it is a significant brief for its recommendations. But it is more—the most incisive and authoritative review of the administrative process as a factor in the attainment of the public interest. Not less original and informative is the same author's *Federal Commissioners*<sup>28</sup> in which the social and educational backgrounds, governmental experience, and the problems of appointment and tenure of the men appointed to the commissions for the past two or three decades are subjected to careful scrutiny. Again a pioneer study, this slim volume records the author's work on hitherto untapped resources and the extraction of invaluable data as to the quality and qualifications of our most independent administrators. Both studies are indispensable to an understanding of how the federal government really operates.<sup>29</sup>

<sup>27</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936.

<sup>28</sup> Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1936.

<sup>29</sup> Many special studies of particular aspects of administration, national, state, and local, are appearing almost continuously. Some of the more significant are: L. Merriam, *Public Service and Special Training*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936; J. E. Devine,

The other aspect of administration, the nature of its relationships, has been brilliantly etched by three of our ablest students of the field in *Frontiers of Administration*.<sup>30</sup> Here in 130 pages of essays, as delightful for their style as they are prophetic in their insights, the authors have suggested and explored the meaning and scope of the significance of principles in public administration, its responsibility, the rôle of discretion in modern administration, a theory of its organization, its relations to American society, and its criteria and objectives. Nowhere in many times the space is there so adequate a portrayal of the potentialities and the conditions of effective administration. It is a landmark in our thinking about the problem of administration and sets that problem on a new plane of constructive analysis and prognosis. It is a book for every citizen to read and ponder.

In no function of government is effective administration more indispensable than in planning. As already noted, the President's

*Post-Entry Training in the Federal Service*. Chicago: Public Administration Fund, 1935; M. B. Lambie, ed., *Training for the Public Service*. Chicago: Public Administration Clearing House, 1935; G. A. Browning and S. P. Breckinridge, *The Development of Poor Relief Legislation in Kansas*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1935; H. B. Taylor, *Law of Guardian and Ward*, *ibid.*; F. Cahn and V. Bary, *Welfare Activities of Federal, State, and Local Governments in California, 1850-1934*. Berkeley: Univ. of California Press, 1936; L. V. Harrison and E. Laine, *After Repeal*. New York: Harper, 1936—a significant study of federal and state administration in the post-Volstead era.

Three texts are of particular importance: W. E. Mosher and J. D. Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration*. New York: Harper, 1936; J. M. Pfiffner, *Public Administration*. New York: Ronald Press, 1935; M. E. Dimock, *Modern Politics and Administration*. New York: American Book, 1937. The latter cuts across the two aspects of administration as the conspicuous insight and fertility of analysis. For a general conspectus of personnel problems today, see L. Gulick, ed., "Improved Personnel in Government Service," *Annals*, January, 1937.

The outstanding official state report during the past two years is that of the *Michigan Civil Service Study Commission*. Lansing, 1936.

\* By Professors M. E. Dimock, J. M. Gaus, and L. D. White, Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936; see also the text by Dimock, note 29.

committee devotes major consideration to planning organization. Prospective legislation is designed to make the national resources board a permanent agency. Drought and flood are only the more spectacular storm signals of the necessity for planning on a local, regional, and national scale. The work of many agencies, official and unofficial, during the past two years has focused attention on some of the major planning problems confronting the country. The studies of the national resources board, the Mississippi Valley committee, the TVA, the federal power commission, and other agencies are concerned with physical planning. Social and industrial planning are being pushed outward to new areas of government regulation and control. The impetus to experiment in action, and to constructive exploration of the organization, functions, and limits of planning, is reflected in the growing body of significant and useable literature of first-rate educational value. Once the country becomes aware of the problems, consensus on policy and effectiveness in its execution will be assured. No subject is more pertinent, more challenging to group thinking, or more exciting in the variety and attractiveness of the materials available.<sup>31</sup>

**L**AWS. It is an accepted dogma of many Americans that ours is a "government of laws and not of men." The last three years have, if it was not already refuted, pretty well exploded that notion. But the translation of realism about the law into the coin of common knowledge proceeds

<sup>a</sup> No complete listing is feasible here. The reports of the agencies noted above are all useful. Most states now have an official planning board, the reports of which have much local interest and value. General regional planning commissions have been set up, for instance, in New England and the Northwest. The reports of these agencies are generally obtainable. Local planning agencies frequently issue useable and interesting reports. For a general bibliography on all aspects of planning, see E. C. Brooks and L. M. Brooks, "Trends in 'Planning' Literature," reprinted from *Social Forces*, March, 1933; see also, K. B. Lohmann, *Regional Planning*. Ann Arbor: Edwards, 1936.

but slowly. Controversy about how the Constitution was framed and what it means has hatched a number of books of considerable current interest.<sup>32</sup> Ernest S. Bates' *The Story of the Supreme Court*<sup>33</sup> is a readable and informative history of the court in terms of the justices and the great cases. In it the reader will find something of the political, social, and economic background of the men who shape the law and the laws to their "inarticulate major premises," and a layman's account of the broader issues behind the decisions in most of the controversial cases. The materials are grouped chronologically; considerable search is necessary to relate similar problems in different periods. There is a really good index and a good working bibliography. There is no other one-volume history of the court so useful for the general reader or non-professional student.<sup>34</sup>

Behind immediate issues and contemporary jurists lie, on the one hand, the broad stream of legal precedent and, on the other, a philosophical-psychological view of what law is and is about. Present controversies as to the correct interpretation of the Constitution,<sup>35</sup> are brilliantly illuminated in Edward S. Corwin's historical study of *The Commerce Power versus States Rights*.<sup>36</sup>

<sup>32</sup> See books by Irving Brant, Hastings Lyon, Fred Rodell, and Henry A. Wallace reviewed elsewhere in this issue.

<sup>33</sup> Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1936.

<sup>34</sup> Several legal biographies have recently appeared: C. W. Smith, *Roger B. Taney*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936; C. B. Swisher, *Roger B. Taney*. New York: Macmillan, 1935; A. T. Mason, *Brandeis and the Modern State*. Washington: National Home Library Foundation, 1936. Closely associated to the court is the department of justice; the first adequate account of its history and activities is Attorney-General Homer S. Cummings' and Carl McFarland's *Federal Justice*. New York: Macmillan, 1937. See also W. N. Brigance, *Jeremiah Sullivan Black*. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1935.

<sup>35</sup> The Senate debate on flood relief on (calendar day) January 27, 1937, is of first-rate value for classroom discussion.

<sup>36</sup> Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press, 1936; compare his *The Twilight of the Supreme Court*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1934; see also F. Frankfurter, *The Commerce Clause Under Marshall, Taney, and Waite*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1937;

Although technical in substance, it is delightfully readable and incisively critical of many traditional legal clichés. For anyone interested in the reorientation of constitutional thinking, this little volume is as indispensable as it is provocative and stimulating.

But what law is and is about, what judges, lawyers and laymen think about it, are in the long run, determinative of its significance to any society. A landmark in contemporary thinking about these questions was set by T. W. Arnold in his *The Symbols of Government*,<sup>37</sup> primarily a study in the relation of law to life in terms of politics, administration, and economic-social controls. The author has explored and exposed the limitations of the judicial process in organizing and regulating the newer functions of the modern state. In comment always shrewd, often biting, he penetrates to the heart of many problems of interest alike to lawyer, government official, and citizen. Also his analysis is fused by a lively and lucid style. This and Professor Corwin's volume are symptomatic of an increasingly critical and objective approach to constitutional exegesis and legal research.<sup>38</sup>

This brief review of some of the more significant books dealing with the American scene suggests the growing variety of the problems with which government must deal and the new approaches to their solution which a time of crisis imposes. The impact of events has created a momentum mirrored in the research, analysis, and synthesis of the past two years.

R. K. Carr, *Democracy and the Supreme Court*. Norman: Univ. of Oklahoma Press, 1936, provides a brief but valuable survey of the New Deal decisions and the function of the court.

<sup>37</sup> New Haven, Yale University Press, 1935.

<sup>38</sup> Two other recent books may be noted in connection with Arnold. E. S. Robinson *Law and the Lawyers*. New York: Macmillan, 1935, is in a sense a companion volume dealing with reforms of legal training and practice; W. A. Robson, *Civilization and the Growth of Law*. New York: Macmillan, 1935, is perhaps the best lucid introduction to the place of law in society from pre-Greek times to the present; see also H. Cairns., *Law and the Social Sciences*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1935.

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# Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

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**G**RAND COULEE DAM is "The Biggest Thing on Earth" according to an article by Richard L. Neuberger in the February *Harpers Magazine*. The designation is of course literally true as applied to the achievements of man's hand and brain; but the phrase sounds a bit strident in the ears of a nation suffering the terrible grip of Nature's ordeal by flood. At the moment we are overwhelmed by the awful exhibition of Nature's power and man's comparative impotence against her mood. What we had considered as the bedrock of our competence and our achievement seems to be turned to shifting sands and running waters. Drop by drop, rivulet by rivulet, and stream by stream Nature has produced raging torrents, muddy backwashes, new contours of land and water, and a destruction of life, security, and property whose farthest reaches cannot yet be measured. The author's figures of the size and the importance of the Grand Coulee Dam stagger the imagination, enough concrete to build a monument as long and wide as a city block and three times the height of the Empire State building, three times as much concrete as went into Boulder Dam, more hydro-electrical power than can be generated when all seven of the Tennessee Valley dams are completed, a cost of some twenty-five million dollars more than the whole cost of the Panama Canal.

For those of us who long ago gave up trying to force our minds over the hurdles of astronomical figures the interests of this article will probably lie in other aspects of

this great federal undertaking in eastern Washington, which will dam the Columbia River at the point, about one hundred and fifty miles south of the Canadian line, where the river makes a sharp turn at right angles to flow almost due north again. In this valley lies a tract of fertile but unwatered land about twice as large as the state of Rhode Island, and the Columbia River furnishes abundant water for irrigation. For two generations now men have jealously watched those two factors to abundant wealth lying in immediate juxtaposition to each other. The all but insuperable obstacle, however, has been that the land lay five hundred feet above the water. No windmill or pumping power known to man seemed capable of producing the desired result on terms possible of accomplishment; but a way was found. The present project plans to utilize the river's prehistoric river bed, the Grand Coulee of the Columbia River, through which the river flowed during the Pleistocene epoch, when it was deflected from its ancient—and present—course by a barrier of the Cordilleran ice sheets. Through thousands of years, backed up and greatly swollen by glacial waters, it made itself a new gorge for its mighty waters, which at one point dropped four hundred feet in a vast cataract three miles wide and fifty times Niagara's volume. This gorge lies high above the present river bed and above the fertile but dry area of the "Columbia Basin project." By building a dam, some five hundred and fifty feet high, at the site of the prehistoric ice barrier the waters of the river

can be backed up so that, with the aid of elaborate pumping apparatus using power generated at the dam, water will again be turned into the Grand Coulee, from which it can be led by a gravity irrigation system out over the surrounding countryside.

THE purpose of this vast project is avowedly threefold, to provide work for unemployed men, to provide hydro-electrical power, and, most importantly, to irrigate land. Out of a total cost of \$404,633,000, almost half a billion dollars, only one hundred and eighty million, less than half, are allotted to both the dam and power plant. Interest charges account for fifteen million. Two hundred and eight million will be spent on the irrigation canals. The completion of the dam will add more than a million and a quarter acres of arable land to the nation's productive capacity. In the summer of 1934 President Roosevelt made a speech near Grand Coulee dedicating that arable land to the well being of the body politic. "It will not only develop the well being of the far West and the Coast, but will also give an opportunity to many individuals and many families back in the older settled parts of the nation to come out here and distribute some of the burdens which fall on them more heavily than . . . on the West."

In the light of this high resolve it is pertinent to examine the question of final settlement of land ownership. The author of the article does not discuss this at length, obviously because he is recording facts not prophecy, and that settlement lies still in the future. However he provides some important facts bearing on the question of whether all this will be of any help in solving our great social and economic problems. In other words, will close to a half billion dollars really be spent to the advantage of the many, or will a few reap the profit? Ninety per cent of the land is in private hands and is held for an expected rise in price. The building of the dam is well begun, and no agreement has been

reached. Unrestrained speculation will complicate the adjustment of the matter, and speculation is seldom far behind opportunity. Such questions of government policy and practice are of course always difficult, but even at this date several possible courses are open to the government: to condemn the land at its value as desert, a process subject to appeal through the courts; to require an agreement to sell at a fixed price in return for water rights; or to settle the whole question on the basis of land prices raised by speculation. It is the task of the federal government to steer that course between the Scylla of confiscation and the Charybdis of wasting the nation's patrimony.

#### RUSSIA

AMERICANS interested in the world of men and in the world of ideas must struggle for some adequate understanding of what really is going on in Russia. Travel and acquaintance with Russians living here help individuals to a sense of reality; but the country is so vast, the basic conditions so different, and evidence so conflicting that it is overwhelmingly difficult to find any sure ground. The recent trial and shooting of a group of old Bolsheviks of undoubted eminence in the councils of the party have not resolved our bewilderment. Max Eastman in "The End of Socialism in Russia" in the same issue of *Harpers* regards the trial and stories of confession as a frame-up and as fitting into "the now openly anti-Bolshevik purposes of Stalin" both in Russia and in the international complications in Spain. "They are the bloody punctuation of a twelve-year period of counter-revolution." He believes that this process began long before Lenin died and was the cause of his opposition to Stalin, and that under Stalin's leadership the power has been withdrawn from the workers and peasants and transferred to himself as dictator and to a bureaucracy, still called the Communist party. "To my mind there is not a hope left for the classless society in present-day Russia. Inside of few years, barring revolutionary

changes, the Soviet Union bids fair to be as reactionary as any country which has emerged from feudalism."

#### GERMANY

**G**ERMANY'S HIDDEN CRISIS" by Willson Woodside is the next article in this same issue. He sees Germany menaced by inflation and unemployment; and he feels sure that the dangers of Germany's embroiling all Europe in war may be avoided, if only the other nations will keep clear heads. Pointing out that the democratic countries "have the power of money on their side in this game of peace or war," he recommends that France give economic assistance in Danubia to prevent Hitler and Mussolini enlarging their influence there, some kind of amicable settlement of war debts, and improvement of trade conditions on a basis of sharing. "The world may be ready by then for another try at fitting Germany in her place. The alternative is scarcely to be contemplated by sane men in this year 1937."

The first of a series of two articles on "Germany's Economic Impasse" by Alexander Vidakovic in the *Nation* of January 30, states three questions of importance. "How far has German rearmament really gone? How has Germany found the means to rearm? How far can it still go without risking collapse or explosion?" The answer to the first question is naturally unsatisfactory owing to the secrecy maintained by the Nazi government. The author's answer to the rest is that "the present German prosperity has been achieved, and rearmament financed, in a threefold way—by using all the means of the present, by pledging much of the earnings of the future, and by spending the capital inherited from the past. No nation can go on indefinitely with such a policy, not even the Third Reich. The only question is how long? And we shall be able better to answer it when we have considered two other factors—the German position in raw materials and the sacrifice in human material which the Nazis are making at

present on their highest altar, that of armament."

The world outside, watching developments in Germany with mingled hope and despair, must from time to time consider such aspects of everyday German life as are described with text and pictures in "Changing Berlin" by Douglas Chandler in the February *National Geographic Magazine*. The article recalls to one's mind the fact that, in spite of all the "blood and iron," the individual German remains notably devoted to gardening and simple holidays in the open air, flowers, music, and animals. Some years ago it became illegal in Berlin to kill animals for food by any method except electrocution. The animals in the Zoo have every semblance of liberty and are restrained from escape by a variety of ingenious devices that spare animals and visitors such visible restraints as cages and fences. That the city, not an old city by European standards, is throbbing with life and strength seems obvious in this description of changing standards in men and things, cleaning and reconditioning of old buildings, slum clearance on a large scale, and language that is abandoning the traditional long-winged style in favor of a crisp, short, almost American tempo. Even the fashion in physical appearance is affected by the emphasis on physical health, so that competent observers predict that "paunchy waistlines and bulging necks will be unknown to the next generation." Certainly Germany is going somewhere fast. The question of her destination absorbs the attention of the world.

#### AIR TRANSPORTATION

**R**EADING in the February issue of the *Atlantic Monthly* "From the Ground Up" by Francis and Katharine Drake, a description of the marvelous invention and precision of detail that goes into the care and performance of commercial transport flying, gave me momentarily the comforting assurance that any race of men capable of evolving and maintaining such a com-

plex of human and inanimate machinery was indeed master of its environment and of its fate. The article deals specifically with the details of making safe the business of flying men and mails hither and thither on this continent. Beginning by describing the solid achievements in expansion and safety, the authors point out the consistent difference in safety between private and transport flying in this country. They remind the reader of the failure of all but one private transatlantic flyer to land at the announced destination in Europe in the many attempts that have been made in the nine years since an unknown boy, Charles A. Lindbergh, accomplished that feat. Against these private failures they offer the uneventful flying records of the recent race around the world by three representatives of New York newspapers over commercial airlines and the eloquent witness of the insurance companies, who charge some ten times as much to insure human life against the risks of private as of commercial flying.

The authors ascribe a great part of this achievement in safety to the intricate organization of the transport companies' ground forces, whose members at any one time are twenty-five times as numerous as are the pilots in the air, quite aside from the large numbers of government employees, men who tend aerial lighthouses, weather stations, radio beacons, emergency fields, inspection services, or company men in ticket and business offices. In some detail they describe the general mechanical and structural overhauling of every transport airship after each three hundred flying hours. The description is fascinating, and the impression of reassurance for the safety of the world is comforting.

**A**NOTHER article on air transportation in the February issue of the *Forum* seems at first to threaten that complacency about man's control of this strange invention of flying machines. Malcolm B. Donald in "Dividends and Death: Why Isn't It Safe to Fly" deals with several of the recent air

crashes—their possible and probable causes. The picture is gloomy; yet according to his account the limitations are not so much those of scientific knowledge but ability to make the human adjustments necessary to apply that knowledge. "The airplane, if it is used within the limitations which govern it, is the safest known means of high-speed transportation. Weather remains the greatest limitation. That limitation is being constantly widened. But there is always a zone in this weather limitation which remains experimental today, even though it will be proved tomorrow. Within ten years, there is reason to believe that flying will be weatherproof. But, under the present set-up, it is not. . . . Airline crashes can be avoided, but the lines will have to put safety ahead of everything else—including dividends. It will cost money to obtain real safety."

#### PRISON WRECKAGE

**C**HRISTOPHER FOLLMAN'S "Keep Your Convicts," also in the *Forum* for February, is an employer's explanation of the reasons why he always refuses employment to any man who has served a prison sentence. "When an American penitentiary gets through with a man, he is unfit for American industry." Whatever his guilt or innocence, the prison experience of standardization, brutalization, and individual degradation destroys initiative and pride in productive work. "If the end of prison is punishment and the means of punishment is calculated to rob the man of initiative, pride, decency, and self-respect—then let the State find a use for the human husk that is left. Don't ask industry to do it."

The author of this arraignment suggests a possible remedy in the establishment of a "period of preparation" for normal living at the end of every prison sentence, in which the convict would wear ordinary clothes and live, as nearly as possible, an ordinary life. He could be "given real work to do, in which he could take a man's pride and for which he would receive" a man's wage, out

of which to pay his board, lodging, entertainment, books, and incidentals. "They've lost their citizenship—let us make citizens, of them. Until then . . . I don't want the product of the American penitentiary in my plant."

#### BOSS PENDERGAST

POLITICAL bosses have been, unfortunately, a commonplace in American history. In the February issue of *Forum* Ralph Coghlan describes "Boss Pendergast, King of Kansas City, Emperor of Missouri." The picture varies in details; but the essentials come out about the same. Yet, however discouraged one may have become, the eyes of all those interested in the state of American political life are turned on the struggle apparently beginning in Kansas City. Last December a federal judge, Albert L. Reeves, opened fire when he instructed a federal grand jury to investigate the election frauds in Kansas City. "Gentlemen, reach for all, even if you find them in high authority. Move on them!" The question still remains whether the power of this agent of the federal government can destroy Tom Pendergast, the boss of Missouri, whom Arthur Krock, a Washington correspondent of the *New York Times* called "the most powerful boss in America and one of the most interesting citizens of America." Will the law's investigation succeed in touching this man, or will Boss Pendergast's potent influence in the well-springs of federal politics be able to remove from himself this ultimate menace?

#### SOIL EROSION

In the same magazine "Save America First" by Arthur P. Chew, a member of the federal department of agriculture, describes the general situation and extent of soil erosion in the United States. Chew believes that the "damage done by erosion in the United States, though great, is not catastrophic," but the process is the same as has laid waste the once fertile northern regions of China and great areas of Persia, Babylonia, As-

syria, and Chaldea, where formerly the irrigated waters of the Tigris and the Euphrates supported centuries of civilization. In these regions "most authorities do not believe that the climate has changed within historic times"; but destruction and neglect of preventive engineering has turned the once fertile acres into barren desert. He sees nothing to prevent the same thing happening in our own land, unless means are "found to create a present interest in the conservation of soil values for the future"; but, admitting that science has on the whole come to a fairly general agreement as to the measures and methods of avoiding soil erosion and even rehabilitating partially eroded areas, we must face the fact that no really adequate program seems to be measurably near acceptance or prosecution.

#### FAR EAST

WITH its issue of *Foreign Policy Reports* for February 1, the Foreign Policy Association presents "American Policy in the Far East" by T. A. Bisson as a challenge to the prevailing view that our policy in China for the last few years has been more negative, and that we bid fair to withdraw from our commitments in that region. The author points out that this view is not substantiated by such developments as the London Naval Conference, the agreement to buy China's silver, the transpacific airline, help to Chinese aviation, technical and financial, and decisions concerning Philippine independence. Japan has now pushed home many of her tentative thrusts; but China shows a growing determination and unity as a basis for successful resistance. After a careful survey of events since 1914 and the growing American isolationist sentiment, partly historical and partly analytical, the author comes to the conclusion that "this policy, which neither achieves real withdrawal nor takes any effective steps to prevent the outbreak of war, creates the danger that the United States will ultimately be involved in any conflict which may develop in the Pacific area."

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## NOTES AND NEWS

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### THE AMERICAN YOUTH COMMISSION

[*The following account of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education has been generously provided by Dr M. M. Chambers, a staff member. A brief descriptive pamphlet was published in January at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. EDITOR]*

READERS of *Social Education* are aware that the American Council on Education is an organ of co-operation and research, consisting of representatives of about 350 institutions of higher education, some 60 educational associations, several state departments of public instruction, and several large city school systems. Dr George F. Zook, President of the Council, and one-time United States Commissioner of Education, took steps in 1934 and 1935 to formulate a comprehensive research project which would look into all phases of the care and education of American youth. This led to the establishment (October 1935) of the American Youth Commission, a body of sixteen nationally prominent persons, to conduct the enterprise, which is financed for a period of five years by the General Education Board.

Dr Homer P. Rainey, distinguished liberal educator and youthful President of Bucknell University, was chosen by the Commission to become Director of its work. He resigned from the Bucknell presidency to take the new post. The members of the Commission represent widely varied interests, including business, industry, transportation, labor, social service, journalism, and

authorship. Six are noted professional educators.

Accepting its mandate to take a broad view of all matters affecting the welfare of young persons between the ages of twelve and twenty-five, the Commission has from the outset had in mind such major aspects of the whole problem as (1) employment and vocational adjustment, (2) general secondary education, (3) equalization of educational opportunity, (4) recreation, (5) health, (6) character and religious education, and (7) the special situations and needs of important groups, such as rural youth and the youth of racial minorities, as well as the smaller groups of young persons handicapped by physical, mental, or social maladjustment.

During the first year several survey projects were inaugurated. How the needs of youth are being met in a typical state is being intensively studied in selected communities in the State of Maryland, where some 14,000 individual young persons of both sexes have been interviewed to provide schedules of information regarding their educational and employment status, their needs and desires regarding recreational and health activities, as well as their attitudes on several important social problems. It is expected that the report of this study will be completed during 1937.

Somewhat similar surveys on a smaller scale are also under way in Muncie, Indiana, and Dallas, Texas, with the objective of discovering the condition of youth in a typical small city and a typical middle-sized urban community, respectively. A study and evaluation of the Civilian Conservation

Corps, especially in its educational aspects, is also under way. An inventory of 30,000 youth in the State of Pennsylvania who were in the sixth grade in school in the years 1926 and 1928 has also been made; and a cooperative study of the characteristics of youth in 149 rural villages in various parts of the country is being conducted.

A considerable number of special studies or investigations are being made by nationally known experts attached to the staff of the Commission for short periods of time. Exploratory reviews have been made, or are at present in progress, in problems of secondary education, employment and vocational adjustment, social attitudes of youth, health, education for citizenship, home and parent education, and the welfare of Negro youth.

In July, 1936, a conference on "the education and employment of youth" was held in New York City, with representatives of large employers, labor leaders, and prominent social workers in attendance at the invitation of a special committee appointed by the Commission. Discussions at this conference were intended to focus the attention of the conferees upon the problem of bridging the gap between school-leaving and employment, which is an important feature of the current dilemma of youth. At the end of September a conference on "secondary education in a changing society" was sponsored jointly by the Commission and the School of Education of the University of Michigan, and held at Ann Arbor, with a large number of prominent laymen and professional leaders in the State of Michigan in attendance. One object was to experiment with this method of promoting consideration of youth problems in a particular state by persons in positions of influence in the formulation of social policies and social programs.

Many other smaller and less formal conferences have been participated in by the Director or members of the staff. Lines of cooperation have been established with other important research undertakings now

under way in the social science and educational fields, as well as with many permanent agencies, both governmental and private, operating in the various sectors which impinge upon the general problem of youth welfare.

Sufficient time for the preparation and publication of any major reports of the American Youth Commission's work has not yet elapsed. As reports become available, announcement of their advent will be made. The Commission is making a methodical approach to a stupendous task, and is well aware that solutions of the problems it is attacking must be arrived at only after thorough study, with the benefit of extensive cooperation from persons and institutions in direct contact with young persons today, and in possession of the fruits of experience in such work. Consequently the Commission invites suggestions from all quarters. It recognizes the teaching of the social sciences as one of the important areas for study, and is happy to present this brief account of some of its early activities to the readers of *Social Education*.

#### GOVERNMENT BULLETINS

Free price lists of Government publications on many topics may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents at Washington. The price lists on *Indians* (No. 24), which includes federal publications on mounds and antiquities; on *Transportation* (No. 25), with attention to railroads, postal service, telegraphs, telephones, and the Panama Canal; and on *Insular Possessions* (No. 32), treating Guam, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Samoa, and the Virgin Islands, have recently been brought up to date.

The January issue of *School Life* calls attention to the possibilities of "Using the Census Bureau in Schools"—in this instance the condensed summaries of the 1935 Census of Agriculture. A summary of tabulations for each of the 3000 counties of the United States has been prepared, as has one for each state. Two other series have also

been prepared, and are available without cost so long as the supply lasts. Specific suggestions for the use of these materials are provided in the article. Farm census bulletins for each state, giving county figures, are available at a charge of five to fifteen cents each. Address the Superintendent of Documents, who will also provide statistical information for business, manufactures, population, and vital statistics.

Margaret F. Ryan, in the same issue of *School Life*, calls attention to the *Consumer's Guide*, a bi-weekly publication which may be obtained without cost from the Consumer's Counsel, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington. Vitamin values, the forecasting of farm crops, and the servicing of rural consumers are samples of the many topics treated.

#### GOVERNMENT MOTION PICTURES

"The Plow that Broke the Plains," a three-reel picture for schools, may be obtained from the Resettlement Administration, Washington, D. C., in 16mm or 35mm sound prints, by paying transportation charges. "It presents the history and land problems of the Great Plains from the time buffalo roamed the range down through eras of cattle raising, homesteading, large scale wheat farming, dust and drought" (*Educational Screen*, January, 1937).

A one-reel silent film showing "The Shenandoah National Park" has been prepared under the supervision of the federal National Park Service and the Bureau of Mines. It may be obtained, in 16mm and 35mm, for non-theatrical exhibition from the Pittsburgh Experiment Station of the United States Bureau of Mines, Pittsburgh, Pa., or the National Park Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C. (*Educational Screen*).

#### PUBLIC FORUMS

In connection with federal public forum projects the Office of Education is offering

a counseling service on program planning for adult education in public forums. Ten demonstration centers in as many states have been maintained during the past six months; nine more are being established. Dr Paul H. Sheats, director of the Chattanooga-Hamilton County public forum project has recently become field supervisor and associate of the assistant administrator, Chester S. Williams, under Dr Studebaker, federal Commissioner of Education.

#### AMERICANIZATION

The influence of a school in breaking down the barriers between Italian and English colonies in the same town is described by Helen E. Laird of Butte, Montana, in the January number of the *Journal of Educational Sociology* ("A Problem in Americanization"). Recognition and encouragement of Italian songs, stories, and handicrafts, co-operative activities, clubs, sports, and programs, led to the "social integration" of the groups. The effects of prohibition and of the depression are described. No extravagant claims are advanced, but the rôle of the school in establishing the social and political equality of the Italians is made clear.

#### CIVIL SERVICE

Last month this department called attention to *The Civil Service in Modern Government* (National Civil Service Reform League, 521 Fifth Avenue, New York. 25 cents.) and "Have You Read?" noted an article by Harold J. Laski on "The British Civil Service" in the winter, 1937, issue of the *Yale Review*. The January issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* is devoted to "Improved Personnel in Government Service," edited by Professor Luther Gulick. Attention is given to spoils and democracy, the development of a professional public service, new techniques of personnel administration, and the reform movement. Single copies of the *Annals* are two dollars; annual

membership or subscription is five dollars. Address the Secretary, 3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

In his monthly editorial in the January *News Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education Dr Stephen Duggan comments on the substantial achievement of the National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation. "As the result of the investigation it made into the history textbooks of various countries its suggestion that slurring remarks concerning other nations be removed has been realized. This has not affected the rampant nationalism that still remains nor the glorification of militarism in the textbooks of some countries but at least statements offensive to the *amour propre* of nations have been eliminated. . . . Its investigations as to the part played by the film and radio in the different countries has been very enlightening. Its researches as to the place given to art and music in the schools of the different nations have resulted in constructive changes in the teaching of those subjects. . . ."

In the same issue of the *News Bulletin* Professor Pitman B. Potter discusses briefly "The Contemporary Challenge to the Teacher of International Relations." Recognizing "the manifestations of anti-international feelings and programs" in many countries today Dr Potter nevertheless concludes that "much international life and organized cooperation goes on untouched," adding:

Of certain facts the teacher is absolutely sure, namely, that national states are going to exist for some generations to come, that relations of all kinds among those states are going to persist and increase rather than decrease, and that orderly and progressive institutions and processes for coordinating and directing those relations must be set up and maintained. Knowing this he may go ahead quietly and confidently at his task.

Annual subscription to the bulletins, which appear monthly from October to May, is twenty-five cents. Address the In-

stitute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

*International Conciliation*, the monthly publication of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, publishes the text of the new Russian constitution, with an historical commentary by Sir Bernard Pares, in the February number. The texts of the German-Japanese agreement on Communism signed on November 25, and of the Anglo-Italian Mediterranean accord signed on January 2 are also included. Annual subscription is twenty-five cents for ten issues; single copies are five cents. Address 405 West 117th Street, New York, N. Y.

#### SPAIN

Three recent Foreign Policy Reports have been devoted to Spain. That of December 1, by Vera Micheles Dean, considers "European Diplomacy in the Spanish Crisis." The Report of January 1, "Spain: Issues Behind the Conflict," by Charles M. Thomson, briefly treats the landlords, clergy, monarchists and fascists, labor and the liberals, and summarizes the struggle in recent years between the conservatives and the popular party, concluding that "the Spanish civil war was not provoked by Communists, either in Spain or Moscow," but from liberal and labor efforts "to effect by democratic methods fundamental changes in the country's economic and social system," which "threatened the privileges long enjoyed by army officers, the large landholders and industrialists, and the clergy." The January 15 Report, "Spain: Civil War," by the same writer, summarizes the events of the conflict, with attention to the terror and atrocities, gives attention to the social revolution which has in part been effected, and notes the international complications which have arisen.

Each of the 12-page Reports may be purchased for twenty-five cents of the Foreign Policy Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York, N. Y.

### RECENT EVENTS IN OUTLINE

*Important Events of Recent Years in European and American History* (Privately printed. Pp. 96. 25 cents postpaid, Box 213, Montclair, N. J.) by F. E. Moyer, formerly chairman of the history department, DeWitt Clinton High School, City of New York, contains a dictionary of names prominent in the news of Europe and a brief sketch of the high lights of events in the European countries since 1922, together with recent developments regarding the Locarno Treaty, the League of Nations, reparations and the moratorium. Mr Moyer then devotes the last third of the book to a year by year summary of events in the United States from 1922 to April, 1936, with a supplement to November 5. No attempt is made to go into great detail on any subject, but these summaries would be good outlines or guides for further study of the subject.

Mr Moyer has also compiled a series of brief tests on American history and government (*Short Answer Tests in American History and Government*. Privately printed. Single copies, 30 cents) which may be bought in quantities. While these are merely the regular fact, short-answer tests, they might prove helpful to busy teachers, particularly as a key to the test is provided.

EDNA NEWKIRK

Tulsa, Oklahoma

### AUTOMOBILES AND LABOR

Teachers of current events and contemporary problems may find useful the September, 1936, issue of *New Frontiers*, which re-edits a 42-page discussion of "The Automobile Industry and Organized Labor," by A. J. Muste. It considers first the financial side of the automobile industry and then unionism. It may be purchased for twenty-five cents of the League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East 19th Street, New York City.

### MENTAL HYGIENE

Teachers concerned with the careful guidance of pupils and with "problem"

cases will wish to see the January issue of *Education*, for which the special editor is Dr Linwood W. Chase of the Country Day School for Boys of Boston. It includes articles on "Influence of Teacher Personality upon Pupil Adjustment," by Dr Leon W. Goldrich, "Individual Adjustment through Group Activity," by Dr Ernest Osborne, "Wise Teachers," by Dr Chase, "Mental Hygiene in the School Child," by Dr Frederick L. Patry, "A Case Study," by Mr Wyatt Harper, "Rural Community Relations," by Professor Gail F. Powell, and "The Child Who Fails," by Dean Vest C. Myers.

### REMEDIAL READING

The many teachers of social studies who find a large number of their pupils handicapped by inability to read will be much interested in "A Remedial-Reading Program in a Public High School," carefully reported in the January *School Review* by Linda Barry and Marjorie Pratt of the Shorewood Public Schools, Milwaukee. Convinced that for the present at least such a program "is a necessary supplement to the high-school curriculum" the Shorewood staff "attempted to improve the comprehension and the reading rate of those pupils who were deficient." Reading and diagnostic tests, checked by report-card marks and by some conferences, were used. Small classes were organized; classes of five or six proved most satisfactory. Pupils were dismissed from the special class as soon as possible. Their subject teachers were asked to co-operate in consolidating the gains made. Specific deficiencies were analyzed, and various materials and exercises for increasing vocabulary and increasing eyespan were developed. The results of the experiment are tabulated, and its weaknesses and strengths summarized.

### TERM PAPER INSTRUCTIONS

Elizabeth Rogers Payne, head of the English department of the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, has published (1936) a

14-page pamphlet of "Directions for Writing a Long Paper Based on Book Material." Social-studies teachers should find it useful since the directions are presented in simple style and are adapted to senior high school needs rather than to the college level, as are most available treatises. The four divisions are devoted to the bibliography, note-taking, the organization of material, and footnotes. Sample note cards and bibliographies, and a fully annotated page are reproduced. Paraphrasing—"saying things in your own way"—and the need for footnotes are concisely explained. The pamphlet may be obtained from the author for twenty-five cents.

MARJORIE PIKE

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Tulsa, Oklahoma

#### "HISTORY AS A SOCIAL STUDY"

A thoughtful and vigorous defense of history as a school subject is presented by Professor A. C. Harper of the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, in the January number of *Education*. There was a time, he observes, when "history was not only basic to the study of the social sciences, but . . . was . . . the elementary social science course." Then came the "social studies," with heavy emphasis on contemporary affairs, on fusion, and on activities, resulting in "loss of identity for economics, sociology, and political science and the total banishment of history." Professor Harper points to "certain fundamental fallacies" in focusing too closely on the contemporary scene, on neglect of the influence of the past in shaping the present, in assuming that "integration goes on outside the pupil's mind," and calls attention to the great broadening of the content of school history in recent years. He criticizes the one-year world-history course, and calls for the devoting of one-third to one-half of time in the elementary schools, and of at least one-fourth of that in secondary schools, to social studies—with stress on realistic history, which recognizes change, focuses on the

child, applies psychology, and uses activities. Thus, perhaps, history "can and must regain its status as the most important of the social studies."

#### A CO-ORDINATED PROGRAM

"Introducing High School Students to the Study of Man through the Ages," by Orrielle Murphy and Alice Margaret Torrey, appears in the January issue of the *Teachers College Record*. The junior high-school co-ordinated program is described. The first year is concerned with primitive and ancient man, the second year with the middle ages and renaissance, the third with the modern age. The nature of the subject matter studied, including art, language, music, recreation, and science; basic concepts, as of change and the interaction of man and environment; the activities employed, including notebooks, reports, excursions, reading; and the "culminating dramatic activity," are briefly described.

The article is one of a series on the social studies in the Horace Mann School, edited jointly by Rollo G. Reynolds and Mary Harden. The *Teachers College Record* for January, 1935, included "Introducing High School Students to a Study of American Civilization and Culture," by Mary Harden, Louise Taggart, and Irene Lemon, and the May issue of the same year published "Introducing High School Students to a Study of Modern Cultures Other Than Their Own," by Mary Harden, Mary Gardner Marshall, and Willis C. Armstrong. These two articles describe the integrated program in the senior high-school years. A fourth article, "A Library in Action in a Modern School," by Grace L. Aldrich and Cecile White Flemming, appears in the February issue of the same publication.

#### READING LISTS

The National Council of Teachers of English (211 West 68th Street, Chicago) publishes three helpful pamphlets in the selecting of fictional and biographical material to be used with history texts or units.

One, "Leisure Reading," is designed for grades seven to nine; another, "Home Reading" for the high school; the third, "Good Reading," for college students and adults. Single copies of each are twenty cents.

For recent fiction in connection with American history, Brentano's "Books for Young Readers" is useful. Jean Carolyn Roos of the Cleveland Public Library has published through the H. W. Wilson Company of New York a valuable booklet, "Background Readings for American History." A less exhaustive list, organized by historical periods, is "Historical Fiction, a Reading List," published by the St. Louis Public Library.

ETHEL O. WOODRING

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#### INSTITUTE OF PACIFIC RELATIONS

When social-studies teachers approach the problems of international relations, both political and cultural, they will find very helpful material on the Far East offered by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations (129 East Fifty-Second Street, New York City).

*The Pacific Area and Its Problems* by Donald R. Nugent and Reginald Bell (New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1936. \$1.35) is a workbook and study outline with reading references, prepared for use in the California public high schools, and published by the American Council. Histories of China, Japan, and Russia are nearly ready for publication. These were prepared for the public schools of Honolulu by Miss Helen Pratt, with collaboration from the American Council: the first edition was used experimentally, in mimeographed form, and then revised to meet the suggestions of teachers, so that the finished books will be unusually practical for classrooms.

In the field of cultural relations with the Far East, the American Council has been doing some experimental work in moving pictures. One film is now completed and in use, and a second is under way. "China's Gifts to the West," now available, is a two-reel 16mm silent picture, partly in color, made in collaboration with the Harmon Foundation (140 Nassau St., New York City.) The Harmon Foundation handles the distribution of the picture, which is rented to schools and clubs at a very moderate fee; a handbook for the teacher or discussion leader, giving suggestions for use and a supply of additional information and references accompanies the picture. Films on Japan and Korea are also available at the Harmon Foundation, with similar free teacher's manuals, prepared by the American Council.

The periodical publications of the Institute are especially useful to teachers in senior high school. The *Far Eastern Survey* (subscription \$2.50), a fortnightly review of economic developments in the Orient is a most valuable reference for the school library; *Pacific Affairs* (subscription \$2.00), a quarterly, offers articles of lasting importance on Oriental culture and political affairs.

Bibliographical service to teachers is offered by the American Council's New York library. Reference lists on a number of subjects are already available, and additional ones are made up on request. Teachers may write to the library for suggestions on books or supplementary material at any time.

*Readers are invited to send in news of associations, including accounts of or plans for meetings, notes of curriculum changes or experiments, and personal items of general or regional interests. Items for the May issue should be sent by April 1.*

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## BOOK REVIEWS

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**The Constitution and the Men Who Made It.**

By Hastings Lyon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1936. Pp. ix, 314. \$3.00.

**Fifty-Five Men.** By Fred Rodell. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Telegraph Press, 1936. Pp. 277. \$2.50.**Whose Constitution?** By Henry A. Wallace, New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1936. Pp. 336. \$1.75.**Storm Over the Constitution.** By Irving Brant. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1936. Pp. xvi, 294. \$2.00.

This is the sesquicentennial of the framing of the Constitution. But something a good deal more vibrant than the urge to historical exegesis or deification has evoked these books. The conflict between traditionalism and a changing environment has been dramatized by the Supreme Court itself in some of its controversial decisions of the past two or three years. The result has been to send some back to reread the record of the Constitutional Convention and the biographies of the men who made it, and others to explore the meaning of constitutional phrases, like commerce or the general welfare, then and now. These four books are in a sense the product of the present discontents with the operation of judicial review as applied to recent congressional attempts to infuse with a more contemporary logic the general phrases of the document of 1787.

All four deal with the convention. The first two are primarily concerned with an interpretation of the motivations of the framers in dealing with the controversial

"compromises" during the four hot months in Philadelphia. The second two utilize the record of the convention incidentally to illuminate their inferences as to the proper meaning of the Constitution today. The authors of the first two books are lawyers, practising and professorial. Here they appear as stage managers of an exciting drama of intrigue, bargain, veto; they have evidently enjoyed their holiday from briefs and citations. Their chapter headings are worthy of Hollywood—they knew what they wanted, the melody lingers on, the last piece in the picture, what would they think today? the coup d'état, wealth or people. . . . As popular accounts of the proceedings of the convention of 1787, they are clever, interesting, entertaining. But they are not altogether free from bias or preconception, or without some interpretations from which there would be vigorous dissent by some of its more orthodox—and historically-saturated—chroniclers. Professor Rodell's book is at best a very light sketch—light in treatment and in outline. It may be, as the blurb puts it, "the realistic story of the making of the constitution," but, if so, something more than realism is required to appreciate the statesmanship of the framers. He has, however, drawn skillfully upon Madison's "Journal" to portray the successive scenes in the words of an eyewitness.

Professor Lyon's account is a much more thorough and inclusive picture of the origins and framing of the Constitution. Beginning with a description of the social

and economic, as well as the political, tensions in "these almost disunited states" in the critical period, he proceeds to a lively and penetrating account of the personnel and organization of the convention, and of the major disputes which arose in its course. His arrangement follows more closely than Rodell's the various clauses of the finished document over which conflicting viewpoints hardened. It is one of the most readable accounts which has yet appeared, and it reflects a more critical and detached attitude, based on a thorough acquaintance with the original sources and contemporary writings, than some of the older and more orthodox historical narratives. In an interesting "epilogue" he traces briefly the post-convention careers of the framers.

The title of Secretary Wallace's book suggests the tenor of his persuasive brief for a reinterpretation of the Constitution to accord with what he believes was its original intent—the promotion of the general welfare. It is, in essence, a review of the original New Deal program in the light of constitutional prescriptions. He invites "1936 [to] shake hands with 1787" in recognizing that "the statesmen of 1787 were amazingly resourceful and daring in establishing a national mechanism with which to deal with their national problem." He would adopt, in interpreting and applying the Constitution today, the "living stream of thought of the twentieth century"—the co-operative idea in economic life relations, as they did of the eighteenth—the idea of a democratic political society. The Constitution, he believes, in purpose and in content, provides the necessary powers to carry such a program through. Liberty Leaguers will be enraged by the clarity and cogency of his argument; for the rest of us, it provides an intelligible platform for economic as well as for political democracy.

*Storm Over the Constitution* is a useful synthesis of the other three volumes; but it also contains several original and pertinent reappraisals of the convention and its product. Mr Brant has, almost alone among

writers on the Constitution, refuted the traditional view that the conflict between the large and the small states over representation in Congress related not to the question of a "strong" versus a "weak" national government but merely to an insurance of equal small-state control within a strong government. It was, in fact, as he has demonstrated from the debates, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, the leader of the small-state bloc, who most strongly advocated wide powers of taxation and regulation of national interests—as soon as the representation issue was settled. And in analyzing the recent interpretations of the Constitution by the Supreme Court he pertinently remarks that, "during the recent period, the United States has shifted from a Constitution of *implied powers*, under the express powers (of Congress), to a Constitution of *implied limitations* upon the express powers. It was virtually the same thing as writing a new and infinitely narrower Constitution." His analysis of the vital decisions before and since 1933, in historical terms, is shrewd, incisive, devastating. He points out, for instance, how the "general welfare" clause was whittled away in the early days of the court. In spite of assertions on the floor of Congress, by some of the surviving framers, of its wide scope even to include use of the taxing power for such purposes as the establishment of a national university, its utility after a century and a half of interpretation is nil. Again, the present doctrine of restriction of the taxing power to the sole purpose of raising revenue, enunciated by the court in the child-labor tax case of 1922, exactly reverses the colonists' position that taxation for revenue was unconstitutional, while taxation for regulation of trade was proper.

This is by all odds the most penetrating critique of current constitutional doctrines now available. In untechnical language, and with a nice sense of historical relevance derived from a thorough and objective use of the sources, he has written something more than a tract for the times. Like its

prototype of 1787, the "Federalist" papers, the author of this volume has presented an enlightened case for a new federalism based on not only a realistic view of the new problems of a technological society but a sound diagnosis of the historical intent of the original Constitution.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Amherst College

**Spending to Save.** By Harry L. Hopkins. New York: Norton, 1936. Pp. 185. \$1.50.

The most recent justification for the spending of six billions on relief has come from the pen of the FERA chief himself. The book is not novel in its approach. It follows the traditional New Deal literary pattern by giving the background for the foundering of our economic vessel in the early 1930's and by picturing the ineptitude of the pilot then in control, as he disregarded the warnings of the economic weather forecaster, refused to follow the charts he himself asked to be drawn, and then denied that his ship had struck a reef even after it began to list alarmingly under his feet. Still true to form there follows a graphic account of the misery of the passengers, the cry for a change in control made articulate by the election of 1932, and the subsequent heroic rescue efforts effected by the new captain and his assistants. It is in connection with the task of resuscitating those who suffered most from the ordeal that Mr Hopkins finds the major theme for his book.

The relief administrator claims two major responsibilities for his various alphabetical agencies. The first, as laid down by Congress, was financial in character and involved the expenditure of over \$6,000,000,000. In this connection Mr Hopkins is certain that "none of this [money] has ever clung to the hands of any official who has had a part in spending it," a statement which is undoubtedly made in all sincerity, but the validity of which must be determined largely by the interpretation and attitude of him who utters it.

The second responsibility involved the care of 18,000,000 persons. Here the author admits that he can give a "less cheerful account" than he did on the first charge. He says frankly that "we have never given adequate relief," but he contends that "out of every dollar entrusted to us for the lessening of their distress, the maximum amount humanly possible was put into their hands." Some will scoff at this statement, but it will be those who have made no honest attempt to see the actual situation that the FERA faced. This agency did not have a clean piece of paper upon which to write as it chose. It was confronted with a sheet already blotched and blotted with the even more inadequate program that preceded it, not to mention the complicated political setup that made the administration of funds and supplies as difficult as could be imagined. The FERA made mistakes, but it did what had to be done under the rules laid down. It is not a pleasant story, and his description is supported by the testimony of others. Particularly in the stumbling period between 1929-1933, he has allowed powerful men in business, industry, and finance, whose attitude had much to do with relief policies and activities during those years, ample space for direct quotation. The pronouncements of many of these "oracles" now appear to be both amazing and amusing. They reveal the true attitude of many of those leaders in whom so much trust was placed only a few years back.

The presentation of the story of relief by the relief chief himself has been needed. The book represents a synthesis of heretofore scattered strands, and it reveals not only the philosophy and development of the whole relief program but indicates what we may expect from it in the future. Likewise, it reveals that Mr Hopkins' philosophy is definitely Rooseveltian. He sees the good life as a possibility under the existing order, if only that order is tempered with certain definite modifications. He apparently accepts capitalism as the best economic sys-

tem possible, but he would reduce the speed of its sickening periodic economic tailspins by a comprehensive program of social security and public works. Such a program he sees not only as desirable but also as inevitable. This program will present many variations and graduations, but it will prevent the economically destitute from fumbling their way along alone in time of crisis. It will have as its basis the prevention of resorting to economic "blood letting" in order to solve the unemployment problem. For, as the author points out, in the past we have "thought of less rather than more life as a way out of the conundrums which mechanical progress keeps always on the desk of government." Government must look at its problems in terms of all men. The future must be different. "We have tried colonial expansion in every direction but upward: sideward for new land, downward by decimation. A mass impetus upward may prove to be more than an equivalent for war."

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School  
Sacramento, California

**The Freedom of the Press.** By Robert R. McCormick. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936. Pp. 116. \$1.00.

**Propaganda.** By Leonard W. Doob. New York: Holt, 1935. Pp. x, 424. \$2.40.

One of these books consists of "a history and an argument compiled from speeches on this subject delivered over a period of fifteen years" (sub-title), by the editor and publisher of the *Chicago Tribune*, and is dedicated to those who are fighting bravely "to save liberty in America." It traces the vicissitudes of the press from the days of Caxton, who in 1476 "furnished a hated machine—the press—to a hated trade" (p. 5) in England, to the fourth decade of the present century in the United States. "Came 1933, and the NRA and NIRA laws, passed without reading, by a thoroughly cowed and corrupt Congress" (p. 53). The second part vigorously stresses current issues and

problems. The book is forcefully yet simply written and contains vast information on the important subject.

The other book deals, according to its sub-title, with the social psychology and technique of propaganda which is being used increasingly widely to influence opinion and behavior among men, women, and children. The author is a social psychologist in Yale. Here one may learn about the psychology of living people, and the nature, the sweep, and the vehicles of propaganda. From the book it seems that there are propaganda and propaganda; there are intentional propaganda and unintentional propaganda. Mr McCormick's book is of the first kind. It pleads a cause.

These two books illustrate how the word "propaganda" has come to acquire a bad connotation, especially in this country, suggesting not only zeal but artistry, craftiness, "treasons, stratagems, and spoils." This seems to be a very different meaning from that which Pope Urban VIII boldly gave to it in 1627, when he established the College of Propaganda. He was determined to train missionaries, and his purpose he proclaimed to the world. Since that time, however, and particularly since the World War, the word has come to mean any organization or agency or means for spreading (it seems that the Latin word from which propaganda comes is closely akin to another Latin word which means "to sow") a particular doctrine, belief, principle, or system, for the purpose of controlling human action. By this definition, to which Doob would subscribe, Mr McCormick is engaged in propaganda, when he argues for the "entire and absolute freedom of the press" as essential to the preservation of a free government, no less than are the New York Society for the Suppression of Vice, whose purpose is to suppress "the trade in and circulation of obscene literature and illustrations" (Doob, p. 207), the Lord's Day Alliance, which seeks to preserve the sacredness of the Sabbath as a day of rest and worship (Doob, p. 212), the American

Association for Social Security, which strives to awaken the United States to its neglect of the aged poor, "so that our old folks may end their days—happy and at home—with their loved ones . . .," a statement that the organization uses to enlist new members (Doob, p. 216), and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, which aims to end lynching and disfranchisement, peonage, legal injustices, inequalities in public education, discrimination, and to obtain "equality of opportunity in all fields with equal pay for equal work" (Doob, p. 220). Propaganda is a very old method of influencing human conduct. It has been used and is used by politicians, educators, ministers, social workers, manufacturers, and other groups and individuals, as well as by manufacturers of tooth paste, shaving cream, and lipstick.

These two books show that there can be propaganda against the enemy and propaganda for peace, as Doob clearly points out. To propagate in the sense in which the word propaganda is used or implied in these two books means to extend, carry forward, diffuse, disseminate. So, at least, says Webster. Even rumor and gossip may be used as a means of social control (Doob, p. 398).

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

The University of North Carolina

**The Teaching of Controversial Subjects.** By Edward L. Thorndike. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. 39. \$1.00.

This slender volume contains the brief, but pungent, remarks of America's most distinguished educational psychologist, delivered as the annual Inglis lecture at Harvard University on January 8. This was the thirteenth in the series of lectures sponsored by the Harvard Graduate School of Education and supported by an endowment fund created in memory of the late Alexander J. Inglis. The essay will prove of particular interest to teachers of the social studies, although it is not addressed to them in particular. In the very nature of the discussion,

however, the author is inclined to draw most of his concrete illustrations from the field of the social studies.

Dr Thorndike believes that schools cannot avoid teaching controversial subjects. He points out that many school topics are in fact controversial, although teachers do not recognize them as such. Moreover, he rejects as incompatible with the true function of education the dictum of some that only scientifically demonstrable, non-controversial topics be taught in the schools. For, he says, "the importance of questions for the conduct of life is often in inverse proportion to the certainty of the answers which schools can give" (p. 4).

Recognizing the necessity for teaching controversial subjects, and deplored many aspects of present classroom practice with regard to them, Dr Thorndike outlines a scheme for teaching controversial subjects "with most of their controversy replaced by science" (p. 39). The proposal bespeaks clearly the well known scientific and statistical predispositions of the author. He suggests that teachers should always have their classes consider both sides of disputed questions. Moreover, they should endeavor to have their pupils determine the statistical probability as to where truth lies. This procedure is to be accompanied by the application of a scientific weighting system for the evaluation of each unit of evidence. In this connection he lays great stress on the importance of expert opinion, and repeats a favorite precept: The "schools should . . . teach the public to trust its ablest men" (p. 31).

The most valuable contribution that the author has probably made to an already much discussed topic is his emphasis on the application of scientific procedures in the determination of unknown truth. From his specific suggestions, however, the classroom teacher will find little aid for practical guidance. It would seem unlikely that ordinary classes of boys and girls would be able to profit from the abstruse scientific approach that so appeals to Dr Thorndike.

Most teachers will accept his own jest that his scheme would entrust the main job of handling controversial matters to those "two passionless detectives, John Probability and Richard Weighting System" (p. 39).

WILBUR F. MURRA

Graduate School of Education  
Harvard University

**Character and Citizenship through Student Government.** By Lillian Kennedy Wyman.

Philadelphia: Winston, 1935. Pp. xvi, 173. \$1.50.

The theme of this book is expressed in its title. It explains and discusses the system of student government that has been growing in the William Penn High School, Philadelphia, during the last quarter-century. And the story is told by the person best qualified to tell it—the official sponsor for self-government in that progressive institution.

The student councils, patterned after our federal government, consist of a senate, a house of representatives, a court, and various volunteer organizations. The senate is made up of the president and vice-president of the students' association, and twelve senators. The senate grants charters to all clubs, administers student finances, and determines student government policies. The president of the association presides at the meetings. The house of representatives is a larger body, which comes closer to the individual girl, encouraging her to take an active interest in student affairs. The vice-president presides over this body as its speaker. The court is made up of a chief justice and six associates, chosen by the senior class from among its own members. Court procedure consists of "friendly interviews" with minor offenders and unique but adequate handling of serious offenses. The chief justice ranks next in authority to the president of the association. Volunteers render all sorts of much needed help in school matters and thus get training for higher positions in the student organization. A secretary and a

treasurer are indispensable officials. Back of this governmental machinery is the sponsor—the mainspring and the balance wheel of the whole process. Rightly enough, her whole time is devoted to this work. And the wonder is how she finds time and strength to meet all the calls that somehow must be met. Only a woman of courage and tact and devotion would even attempt it.

Only a word can be said about the many and varied accomplishments of this association. Philadelphia politicians would do well to read this book to find out how elections are conducted at the William Penn School, both honestly and intelligently. How the students proctor their study hall and lunch rooms is told interestingly. The reviewer well remembers having this described to him by Dr W. D. Lewis, then principal, when the experiment was first being tried; and how confident Dr Lewis was that self government was the only kind that would train the girls for participation in our political democracy. Mrs Wyman seems to be perpetuating that belief, for her volume is filled with it. This is what gives her strength and courage to sponsor the movement. This review would be incomplete if it omitted faculty co-operation. Mrs Wyman pays high tribute to the values of home-room and other pupil-teacher conferences.

In the addenda may be found much that should be especially valuable to schools where this experiment is not yet fairly started. Dr Lewis, in his introduction, reminds us that in the school "the pupils find a prototype of the various communities of later life," and that self-government decisions in the school "parallel the decisions of later civic issues." Mrs Wyman rightly characterizes the school as "a place in which the new social order is being dynamically formed." She sees the William Penn experiment as a laboratory for democratic self-rule, where the girls may be trained as leaders, as intelligent followers, and as all-round good citizens.

This book is bound to take an important place in the growing literature in pupil

guidance. The facts given and the spirit animating the whole governmental procedure, as well as the delightful way in which the story is told, should recommend the book to all who have to do, directly or indirectly, with the education of adolescent girls.

J. LYNN BARNARD

Ursinus College

**Youth Serves the Community.** By Paul R. Hanna and Research Staff. Works Progress Administration. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936. Pp. xiv, 303. \$2.00.

Many people wonder what attempts are actually being made to bring the youth of today into a co-operative and useful place in the community. *Youth Serves the Community* is the result of a survey to find and record actual projects which have been or are being carried out today. This book is the first of a series of publications by which the Progressive Education Association intends to help teachers and other educational workers to do more thorough and effective work in the schools.

William H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College, Columbia University, in his introduction, urges as goals of education in our day: first, an education in, through, and for living in a democratic society and a changing world; second, an education to take account of the fact that we are now consciously living in an economically interdependent world; third, an education of old and young together, to help bring about a better state of society in this country of ours (pp. 12-13).

Social-studies teachers are just beginning to realize the importance of bringing children into direct contact with community activities and with this new conception of education in mind leaders and teachers of children will be eager to read what seem to be accomplishments and possibilities. The nine chapters are entitled A Challenge to Educational and Social Leadership; Youth Contributes to Public Safety; Youth Com-

tributes to Civic Beauty; Youth Contributes to Community Health; Youth Contributes to Agricultural and Industrial Improvement; Youth Contributes to Civic Arts; Youth Contributes to Local History, Surveys and Inventories, and Protection of Resources; Youth in Foreign Countries Contributes to Socially-Useful Work; The Survey Challenge to Educational Leadership. Appendix I lists the names of persons furnishing valuable materials used as bases for reports; Appendix II gives an extended list of suggestive socially-useful projects not reviewed in this book; and Appendix III is a selected bibliography of references in English.

LAWRENCE SHEPHERD

Central High School  
Tulsa, Oklahoma

**Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency.**

By T. Earl Sullenger. New York: John Wiley, 1936. Pp. xiii, 412. \$3.50.

**Can Delinquency Be Measured?** By Sophia Moses Robison. New York: Published for The Welfare Council of New York City by Columbia Univ. Press, 1936. Pp. xxvi, 277. \$3.00.

**Problems of Child Welfare.** By George B.

Mangold. New York: Macmillan, 1936.

Pp. xxx, 549. \$3.00.

Dr Sullenger, who is professor of sociology in the Municipal University of Omaha, intends his book to be used as a textbook for classes in juvenile delinquency and criminology, for study groups, and for the general reader. It contains a scholarly and practical evaluation of various studies that have been made of the causes of juvenile delinquency. Dr Sullenger reviews the statistical material, mentions the safeguards used, and gives an estimate of the soundness of the processes and of the value of the conclusions. He carefully distinguishes between those conditions which he feels should be classified as direct causes of delinquency and those that "provide a culture

for the maturation of criminal tendencies." Taken together, these estimates constitute a comprehensive and discriminating statement about those causes of juvenile delinquency that lie in the social structure. The latter part of the book is devoted to "remedial and preventive forces," and with this subject Dr Sullenger is less at home than with his studies of social determinants. He presents his material under such headings as "The Policewoman," "The Child Guidance Clinic," and various other agencies which he thinks of as carrying on preventive and corrective work with children and says more about the mechanisms of these organizations than about the theory of prevention and correction. The bibliographies, both those special ones attached to the various chapters on such topics as "The Playgroup," "The Neighborhood," "The School and Child Labor," and the general bibliography at the end on the general subject of "The Juvenile Delinquent," are extensive and admirably selected. Despite its technical character, this book will be found readable by anyone interested in the general subject of the behavior of children, as the material is presented vividly and is illustrated with striking case stories.

Mrs Robison is a member of the staff of the Welfare Council. She does not really attempt to answer the question in the title. She recognizes that an enumeration of delinquents such as might be of service in the field of prevention and correction must wait on the formulation of a more inclusive and more searching definition of juvenile delinquency than that in current use. She has, however, contrived a modification of this definition which makes it possible for her to answer a question of narrower import than that in the title, namely: Can the maps that have been made to show "delinquency areas" in New York City be depended upon to tell how many children, "delinquent" according to the standards of the juvenile court, live in the various areas? The author makes a convincing presentation of her reasons for concluding that the

statistics used in these studies are neither inclusive nor accurate and that they cannot safely be used as a basis for further studies in this field. The enumeration includes only those children who have had a juvenile court experience. It fails to exclude those children who have been to juvenile courts but whose misbehavior has not been found sufficiently serious to warrant commitment or placement on probation. It does not include large numbers of children known to unofficial agencies whose misbehavior has been the same as that which the court calls serious. And it fails to take into consideration those cultural and religious influences in the various neighborhoods which materially increase or decrease the likelihood that a child's misbehavior will be brought to the attention of any agency. This study will be welcomed not only by those who have wished for more accurate statistics about the distribution of juvenile delinquency but also by those who will find in it a starting point for a study of what juvenile delinquency really is.

*Problems of Child Welfare* is a third edition of a book written by a veteran social worker and teacher at the University of Southern California. It is designed for the use of college students in practical courses in the study of social problems. It describes the services that a modern state should render to its children in the fields of health, education, recreation, and social protection. The methodical plan of the book is to make a statement, supported by clearly interpreted figures, about what has been done in each field, followed by a statement about what should be done in order to measure up to recognized standards. A large part of the material that has been assembled might better perhaps, since the chief sources are not numerous or hard to use, have been left for the students themselves to gather, but the interpretation of the material will be of great value to them. As a reference book for the use of social workers, *Problems of Child Welfare* will probably not be extensively used, because it is, despite its

length, able to give to each topic only a general presentation.

MILDRED TERRETT

Juvenile Protective Association  
Washington, D. C.

**Occupational Civics.** By Imogene Kean Giles. New York: Macmillan, 1936. Pp. x, 390. \$1.40.

**Occupations and Vocational Guidance. A Source List of Pamphlet Material.** Compiled by Wilma Bennett. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 123, 2d ed. rev. \$1.25.

**Index to Vocations.** Compiled by Willodeen Price and Zelma E. Tichen. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 106, rev. ed.

*Occupational Civics* attempts to correct the shortcomings of former instructional materials for occupational civics classes. The author's experiences as former director of civics and vocations classes in the J. Sterling Morton High School at Cicero, Illinois, qualify her to write a textbook of this type. In a well organized manner it deals with the choice of a vocation and the laws governing workers, with a survey of occupations and the opportunities in each, with governmental services and their relationship to workers, and, finally, with the problems of leisure time, training for a vocation, and personal standards for success. The abundance of questions and activities suggested for each topic should aid a teacher in providing for individual interests and abilities. Practical suggestions for drawing diagrams, planning excursions, making charts and tables, making a time budget, and dramatizing subject matter are realities. The 108 illustrations, as well as the actual subject matter, are full of human interest. Throughout the book the author has developed the philosophy that life is an adventure. It is an adventure in which the students are led into a realm of knowledge where they understand how their personal characteristics and life work "fit

into the pattern of the adventure of life for all." Students are not led to believe that they can plan their whole course of adventure at one time; students are not led to believe that everyone should be a college graduate or a "white-collar" worker; students are not led to believe that the government guarantees personal rights and privileges without corresponding personal responsibilities; and students are not led to believe that compensation comes before preparation. On the whole, this text presents the proper viewpoint, namely, that our goal in education should be to help boys and girls obtain adequate training and guidance in order that they may take their proper places in society as well rounded citizens.

In each of the latter two publications valuable source material has been compiled for the school pupil, the adult, the school administrator, and the teacher. Both are revised editions of previously mimeographed materials. However, there is a distinct difference between the two printed compilations.

Miss Bennett, high-school librarian at La Porte, Indiana, has brought together in her second edition a buying list and subject index of pamphlets on occupations and vocational guidance. Part I contains an alphabetical list of organizations from which materials may be obtained concerning occupations and vocational guidance. "Title, author if known, date, paging, and price" are given for each pamphlet. Part II is a detailed index based upon the list in Part I and arranged alphabetically according to the subjects involved. Biography, fiction of vocational interest, charts, periodicals, school subjects and their relation to occupations, and visual aids are listed.

Price and Tichen in their *Index to Vocations* have revised a mimeographed edition published by the division of high-school reference of the public library of Fort Wayne and Allen County, Indiana. After analyzing many pamphlets and 115 books in the field of interest, the authors arranged the *Index* alphabetically according to "the

name of the specific vocation." Over 1800 specific career headings are listed. "The author, title, date, and inclusive paging are given for each entry." An adequate list of biographies in different occupational fields is given. Pertinent references for vocational teachers and counselors are presented. Such source material should be available to the public in every community.

J. FRED MURPHY

Arsenal Technical Schools  
Indianapolis, Indiana

**Democracy Enters College.** By R. L. Duffus.  
New York: Scribner, 1936. Pp. ix, 244.  
\$1.50.

This study, made under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, traces the rise and decline of the academic lock step. It asks many pertinent questions, including the purposes of a college, how to select the right students, what the college shall do with them after they enter, how the college can justify the length of time it asks of them, how it can justify the employment of specialists to guide and instruct, or the immense investments which higher education has made in physical equipment, libraries, and laboratories. The stimulating volume recalls the study published last year by John R. Tunis, *Was College Worth While?* In that book Mr Tunis asserted that half of his mates of the Harvard class of 1911 were disappointed in their life work after twenty-five years away from Cambridge. *Democracy Enters College* concerns itself with the history of the unit system of admissions and its present status. The first part of the book, down through page 103, is historical, dealing with the place of the college in American life, the strength of the college tradition, the problems of the colleges during the last four decades of the past century, when the general level of education was rising rapidly throughout the country, and with the introduction of the elective system at Harvard and its speedy spread throughout the colleges of the country and later into the sec-

ondary schools, with the rise, decline, and fall of the "Carnegie Units," and with "Education by Adding Machine" (pp. 45-56).

The "Unit's Golden Age" vividly tells the story of the chaos and confusion in secondary education before the adoption in the early part of the present century of the Carnegie Unit which, it may be said with considerable truth, saved secondary education from further chaos. About 1906 leaders in education found it necessary to find or to make legal definitions of a college and standards for adequate academic or high-school preparation for college admission. Within three years the National Conference Board precisely formulated the standard unit, which is the prevailing academic currency at the present time, but whose promises have been disappointing if not in large part unfulfilled, as intelligent critics of secondary and higher education now admit. The educational integer, commonly known as the "Carnegie Unit," was not, however, invented by the Carnegie Foundation. Rather it was a co-operative product, which was eagerly seized upon by educational institutions and organizations in the absence of any better yardstick. Duffus thinks that it was "probably baptized Carnegie because the Foundation was at that time most active in urging standards." These or less artificial standards continued to be used until the psychologists came upon the stage, now almost twenty years ago, with the so-called objective tests and measurements.

Duffus is not unaware that secondary and higher educational problems in this country came out of the basic fact that "we are educationally the most complete democracy in the world" (p. 233). Here, as Professor Kandel has so well pointed out, we undertake to educate everybody from the gutter to the university,—at least we undertake to provide schooling for everybody. No effort is made to train a select ruling class. It seems clear also that education in the United States is one of the most fascinating features of our entire democratic epic. Yet, if we measure the progress of democracy by

changes in our educational practices, we should not be startled at a decline in the rigidity of those practices. We should, on the other hand, expect to find less emphasis upon tradition and fixed authority and more on initiative and originality and efforts to recognize the individual needs and abilities of the multitude of students who are annually leaving high schools and crowding into the colleges. The old pattern of college education began to break down in the third quarter of the nineteenth century. Until that time it was practically what it had been in the seventeenth century. Other forces have contributed to change the pattern, and changes in pattern have often been followed by periods of educational anarchy, in which it was difficult if not impossible for educational leaders to agree on the purposes of college education. Even now there is no general agreement as to what should be taught in college or as to how the subjects should be taught. Some efforts to find the answers to these questions are described in "Educational New Deals" (pp. 149-176). This chapter tells of the experiments and the new college plans, which have been developed in this country especially since the World War and which show some promise of a closer relationship between the secondary schools and the colleges.

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

The University of North Carolina

**Diets and Riots.** By A. M. Bevis. Boston: Marshall Jones Co., 1936. Pp. xiii, 127.

This interpretation of the history of the oldest and most distinguished higher educational institution in the United States aims "to be neither exhaustive nor exhausting" (p. v). Rather, it seeks to tell the story of three centuries of the hunger of Harvard for "food and knowledge. Much of the history of the University centers about student discontent, which varied in inverse ratio to the excellence of the menu" (p. v). And in telling this fascinating story the author, who has endeavored to be faithful to the facts, acknowledges indebtedness particu-

larly to Professor Samuel Eliot Morison, Harvard's official historian and author of *The Founding of Harvard College* (1935) and *Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century* (2 vols., 1936).

There is engaging humor in *Diets and Riots*. The book shows that while Harvard's founding fathers may have cried out for knowledge "as the hart panteth after the water brooks," as the Psalmist has it, the students yearned for food; and this theme of educational history leaves a chuckle on every one of the 127 pages. Did not the great Eliot get the suggestion for turning the curriculum of the place over like a flapjack from having noticed that the students ate around in the Cambridge restaurants and thus acquired a taste for variety? If variety is good in food, why not in academic courses? Hence the elective system, which gave the "milk of elementary courses to intellectual infants" and furnished the more "substantial diet of advanced work to those older in wisdom and learning" (pp. 115-116). With the advent of Eliot Harvard students could nibble all over the catalogue. Some naturally broke "their teeth on hard bone and gristle of advanced courses," some tried the "spinach and carrots" of well co-ordinated work, while many chose soft "courses and snaps, like Semitics 12 and Chinese 1" (p. 117). Bevis' story moves from one amusing episode to another and tells how the history of Harvard turned largely on food. The boys began to shout for food from the start. But Mrs Eaton, the wife of the first master Nathaniel Eaton (was he not dismissed for beating students and his assistant in an inhuman manner?), continued to serve the small band "of Harvard students and the College swine 'share and share alike'" (p. 3). The sixty brief sections in the book deal almost entirely with the discontent of students in regard to food. The most important sections include "Sharing the Roast," "Dinners and Degrees," "Hunger Is Sharp," "How to Quell Riots," "Drink Harvard Dry," "The Mystery of Plum Cake," "The Coming of

Forks," "Plates at Last," "The Butter Rebellion," "Fresh Fish for Freedom," "The Cabbage Rebellion," "The Common Salt," "The Faculty Dines Together—Once." The merriest commencement the Yard had witnessed up to that time took place with the opening of the new Harvard Hall in 1677. So riotously tumultuous was the manner in which this commencement was observed that dour Cotton Mather said: "It was occasion of much sin" (p. 46). It was Mather who transformed Harvard from a college to a university by decorating himself with the title of Doctor of Divinity and giving the same degree to the members of his faculty of theology (p. 53). Before forks were provided by the Commons, the dandies among the students came to their meals with their personal implements "jauntily stuck in their belts like stilettos" (p. 59). The students still used their fingers in "snatching chunks of meat from the platters; but when the bread was passed, the forks were whipped out and used to nail the 'sizing' to the table. The steel forks stood up here and there about the board, defiantly holding the treasures of food pillaged from unarmed neighbors" (p. 59). Benjamin Wadsworth, who served as president in 1725, took a timid step toward democracy by providing plates in the Commons and by ordering that the tablecloths be changed twice a week. Cleanliness at Harvard was now slowly gaining on godliness. Harvard might now be considered less godly—this would have greatly disturbed the founding fathers—but no one could question that the institution was becoming more cleanly.

*Diets and Riots*, which is good American educational history, shows how food made collegiate history around Cambridge. Those presidents of the institution who were mindful of this necessity have come down the centuries as great men, and those who were indifferent to the subject have been forgotten. Food united the students and drew closer together graduates from the four corners of the country and tightened the bonds of Harvard fellowship and friend-

ship "when they were wet" and in a state of sober inebriety.

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

The University of North Carolina

**Greece and the Aegean.** By Ernest A. Gardner, New York: McBride, 1936. Pp. 254. \$2.50.

**History of Ancient Civilization. Volume I, "The Ancient Near East and Greece."** By Albert A. Trever. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1936. Pp. xx, 585. \$3.50.

*Greece and the Aegean*, a traveler's guide-book based on the intimate knowledge of Greece and its antiquities possessed by Dr Gardner, emeritus professor of archaeology at the University of London, will be of especial interest to students of classical civilization and art. Rejoicing that so much of Greece is now accessible to the ordinary tourist, the author has chosen a route filled with interest and material for studious investigation. The introductory chapter makes clear to the reader the advantages of first approaching Athens by sea. That the traveler may better appreciate the character of the modern Greek people, Dr Gardner, in the next three chapters, sketches briefly the complex political history of the nation, its archaeological interest, facilities for travel, language, religion, and education. Of the remaining twelve chapters, nine deal with the middle and northern parts of Greece and the Peloponnesus; the islands, coast of Asia Minor, and Constantinople receive separate treatment, the latter by S. Casson. As the author's aim is primarily to assist the traveler to appreciate and understand what he sees as well as "to acquire the atmosphere and spirit in which a visit to Greece can most readily be enjoyed" (p. 7), he takes pains to evoke Hellenic associations and to supply historical background. In describing the present aspect of such important sites as Athens and its environs, Delphi, and Olympia, he rouses a healthy respect for the power of archaeological material to throw light upon an-

tiquity. Interesting, though all too brief, is his treatment of the museum at Athens, as well as that of the islands, Ionian and Aegean, and the coast of Asia Minor.

Supplementing the text of this small volume are many excellent photographs, folding maps of modern Athens and Greece, and plans of Olympia and Constantinople. The select bibliography includes books on special places, customs, and language, as well as a brief list of guidebooks, English, French, and Greek.

Equipped by years of practical experience in teaching ancient history, the Greek language, and Greek, Hebrew, and Biblical literature, Dr Trever, professor of ancient and medieval history at Lawrence College, has provided an excellent textbook for college students. Unusually full, enriched culturally, and embodying the results of modern scholarship, this first volume of his *History of Ancient Civilization* should be a stimulating and interesting introduction to this subject and a welcome addition to secondary-school libraries. Respecting chronology and linking the narrative with its social setting, the author tells the story of ancient civilization from prehistoric times to the end of the Hellenistic period. Including the introduction and epilogue, the volume is conveniently divided into ten parts, each including several closely related chapters. Seven parts, or approximately four-fifths of the book, are devoted to Greek history. Without disturbing the continuity of the story, each chapter is divided into several sections; the chapter "Hellenic Society and Culture (479-461 B.C.)" has as one of its subdivisions, "Athens and the Spirit of the Age," in which are discussed (1) The Civic Spirit, (2) The Religious Spirit, (3) The Aristocratic Spirit. With political and military history subordinate to cultural, the latter occupies about one-half of the space of the book. Emphasizing changing trends and the development of cultural institutions and ideas, the author consistently stresses the cultural interdependence of peoples. Particularly should be

mentioned in this connection his painstaking comparison of the Babylonian and Mosaic codes. The epilogue, "The Hellenic Heritage to Western Civilization," is a searching analysis of the "abiding Hellenic element in modern culture, especially with reference to English speaking countries" (p. 527). The heritage from the Greeks did not find its source in Athens alone, nor was it limited to classical Greece but drew from the entire Mediterranean basin.

Numerous quotations from source materials are an integral part of the narrative: a full page quotation from Aristophanes' *Wasps* elucidates the Athenian jury courts; a section on "Contemporary Estimates of Periclean Democracy" enlivens this subject. Enhancing the value of the volume there are nineteen double-face plates, each carrying several small but clear illustrations, together with explanatory notes. There are fourteen well placed maps in color, and a selective bibliography for each chapter, including a helpful list of English translations of Greek classics. References to the maps are given in the text and index. Of the four charts, the one on Greek history is awkwardly placed between bibliography and index.

IRENE LEMON

Horace Mann High School  
New York City

**The Middle Classes, Then and Now.** By Franklin Charles Palm. New York: Macmillan, 1936. Pp. xiv, 421. \$3.50.

**A History of the Economic and Social Progress of European Peoples.** By Walter W. Jennings. Lexington, Ky.: Kernel Press, 1936. Pp. xiii, 713. \$3.50.

Whether or not the old dictum that the final goal of historical study is synthesis be accepted or not, the person who is really interested in the past welcomes works that endeavor to draw together great masses of detailed historical knowledge. It is on this ground that the two books under consideration warrant serious attention. The first

requisite of a real work of synthesis is not that it should cover a long time-span, but that it should knit the essential phases of our past into a unified whole. It should show growth; it should point out recurring problems; and it should provide a background for the institutions existing at the time the synthesis is brought to a close.

If these be the criteria of good historical synthesis, it is safe to say that Professor Palm has performed the task much more successfully than has Professor Jennings. The author of *The Middle Classes, Then and Now* leaves his reader with definite impressions of how the middle classes came to be, what they have been, and what they are. He begins his study by defining capitalists as persons whose income is based on profits from invested capital; proletarians as those who are dependent upon wages for a living; and bourgeois or middle-class persons as individuals whose income is derived "from a combination of their own labors plus invested capital." Very briefly, too briefly perhaps, he mentions the fact that capitalists existed in ancient Egypt, Greece, and Rome. Then he begins the long story of the rise of the middle class in Western Europe and in America. The high points in the story are the growth of capitalist economy in the later middle ages and early modern times, the coming to political power of the middle classes with the French Revolution and with succeeding bourgeois revolutions, and the concentration of wealth under the industrialized economy of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In a concluding chapter, entitled "Whither Bourgeoisie," Professor Palm points out that Fascism, Nazism, and the New Deal are mainly movements to preserve the system of private capitalism. One gets the definite impression that the author looks upon our present stage as that of "Late Capitalism," to use an expression of Werner Sombart's, and that he has some sympathy with socializing tendencies. The entire book is written in a straightforward manner that will appeal to the general reader as well as to the student.

If the student desires to pursue the study further, he will find useful, but limited, bibliographical references.

Professor Jennings has been handicapped, to a degree, in presenting his synthesis by including all kinds of economic and social subjects and not limiting himself to one theme. In spite of this fact, it would seem that he could have done more toward presenting a concise picture of the past. Be that as it may, this book furnishes ample evidence that it is not a finished product. The text was used in mimeographed form for classroom work, and it has maintained the character of a hurriedly prepared body of class notes. It is written in a staccato style with a poverty of vocabulary that is most distressing. One example of the carelessness of the author is that accents on French words are omitted with great abandon. Moreover, the author's scholarship is not nearly so sound as is that of Professor Palm. Professor Jennings presents the time-honored, but erroneous, interpretation of mercantilism as based exclusively on bullion as the source of state wealth, whereas Professor Palm more correctly insists that it was economic state-building in the largest sense. Professor Jennings also does not mention the excellent work of John U. Nef on the industrial revolution in England that has done much to revise our notions of the industrial process—a revision that tends to stretch out the industrialization of England. Furthermore, his statement that the peasants increased greatly their holdings of land during the French Revolution is not substantiated by fact.

Many of the weaknesses of Professor Jennings' book might be overlooked because the work is destined for beginners in economic history. This fact hardly excuses some of the book's shortcomings, though. Teachers of economic history will find Herbert Heaton's *Economic History of Europe* (New York: Harper, 1936) a much more satisfactory text than the present work.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

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The Committee on Publications  
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of Education

Cambridge, Massachusetts

**An Economic History of the British Isles.** By Arthur Birnie. London, Methuen, 1935. New York: Crofts, 1936. Pp. ix, 391. \$3.00.

Professor Birnie of the University of Edinburgh so gallantly won his spurs as a successful textbook writer with his *Economic History of Europe, 1760-1930* (London: Methuen, 1930) that this new book is warmly welcomed. In character it is much like his former work—it is clear, precise, scholarly, and well-written. A careful check has disclosed that the author is *au courant* with the tremendous amount of revisionism in economic history, particularly with that concerning the agricultural revolution of the sixteenth century, mercantilism, and the industrial revolution. Yet Professor Birnie does not accept blindly the latest fads of interpretation. He explains them and weighs them carefully before venturing an opinion. His judgments usually are moderate and appear to the reviewer to be well balanced.

The book begins with such an excellent statement of the value to be derived from a study of economic history that it should be read by all teachers of European history. The story of economic development from prehistoric man to 1935 is then traced in a manner that can be presented as a model to those writers who would appeal to students in the first year of college or last year of high school. The book has the virtue of covering the interesting post-war period that witnessed the abandonment of laissez faire and of treating, what no other single volume does, the material life of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, as well as that of England.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

**The Lives of Talleyrand.** By Crane Brinton. New York: Norton, 1936. Pp. xi, 316. \$3.00.

In spite of the plural form used in the title, this book can only be considered to be a "life" of Talleyrand by a most generous stretch of the imagination. It is essentially

a study in personal and public morals, with an implication that good citizens should endeavor to make the world a better place in which to live, provided the peace is kept and attitudes of tolerance prevail. Nothing more final than this is requested. The reforms that are necessary at any given moment are to be decided upon by men of wisdom, like Talleyrand, and these men are to employ almost any means that will obtain their ends. Such statements are not to be condemned because of violating the Ten Commandments in part or in *toto*. A man of genius may be a liar, thief, and adulterer, as was Talleyrand, but that matters little. Talleyrand should definitely be classed as "good." The reader may judge of this thesis what he will; the reviewer does not propose to perform this service for him.

The account of the *ancien régime* is so allusive as to be utterly confusing. The author does not insist upon what seems to be the fundamental point—that the privileged classes were not rendering services commensurate with their cost to society. He attributes much of what happened to bring on the revolution to "chance." Yet that is not an explanation; it is largely a camouflage for one. Furthermore, he endeavors to whitewash Talleyrand for not having taken account of the principle of nationality at the Congress of Vienna, because, like Metternich, he feared it. If Talleyrand had been the man that the author tries to make him, would he not have been foresighted enough to have made Europe a better place in which to live by making concessions to nationalism? Professor Brinton admires the society that could produce a man like Talleyrand, but the same society produced Robespierre, Marat, and Hébert, who by contrast could not gain the author's affections. Is it not a narrow and unsocial view to judge a society by a few men that it may produce? Finally, the discursus on liberalism in chapter viii misses entirely the main issue involved—the class significance of liberal philosophy.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

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